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A JAPANESE SCHOOL.

AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

JANUARY, 1871.

SCHOOLS IN JAPAN.

THE sketches of an enterprising Swiss traveler, M. Humbert, have enabled us to present an interesting picture of a Japanese school. "Object teaching" is doubtless known to these Orientals, and, judging by the little pupil in the foreground, Natural History receives due attention. He visited a school when half a dozen little boys, squatted in a group around their teacher, were reciting their lessons. Upon asking the meaning of the words which they were repeating, he was told that they were reciting the "*irova.*" The "*irova*" is a kind of alphabet consisting of four lines, which contain the forty-eight fundamental sounds of the Japanese language. These lines he gives us, premising that the consonant *v* is, in some dialects, *f*, and in others *h* aspirate; that *w* has the same sound as in English, and that the sounds of *d* and *t*, and of *g* and *k*, as well as of *s* or *ds* with *z* and *ts* are often confounded.

"Irova nivovéto tsirinourou wo.
Wagayo darézo tsoune naramou,
Ou wi no okouyama kéfou koyété,
Asaki youmemiri evimo sézou oun."

Color and perfume vanish away,
What can there be lasting in this world?
To-day has disappeared into the abyss of nothingness.
It is but the passing image in a dream
And causes only a slight trouble.

These few lines teach us much of the Japanese character. Generations after generations have repeated this popular philosophy of nothingness, the effect of which is to be traced in many details of their domestic life. School education in Japan is quite widely extended. The chief schools of the empire are five: the Naval school, the Military school, the Medical school, the University, and the Reading school. These are all at Jeddo, and are essentially governmental institutions. In no other place in the empire are these to be found. In Japan, somewhat as in France, everything of that kind appears centralized at the capital.

The government schools are attended both by youths and by those of riper age. Upon his entrance into an institution, the pupil must present to the master a note containing his own name, the name of his father and of his business, and a statement of his own age and education. And every morning he has to put his name upon a list kept for that purpose, so that the school authorities may be certain of his regular attendance. This register is examined every month. In the government schools, the instruction begins at 10 o'clock, A. M., and ends at 3 P. M. Except the festivals, there are no holidays.

The Naval school is called *Kaigun shu.* The masters are ship captains and naval officers of a low grade, who teach the sciences relative to navigation—mathematics, artillery, shipbuilding, and so forth.

The other schools are similar in their general arrangements. The so-called "Reading school" is a public college, or high-school. The University, named *Kai-sei-dshu,* includes the study of literature, philosophy, history, and foreign languages. The students learn, according to their choice and will, Latin, Greek, Dutch, French, English, Portuguese, and other tongues.

There is in Jeddo a Chinese school, which does not come under government inspection. It is a private undertaking of certain learned Chinese. It is largely attended by the Japanese, since a knowledge of the Chinese is indispensable to them, in so far as that language stands in the same relation to their mother-tongue as the Latin to the chief modern languages.

There are also Writing schools, which are under ecclesiastical management. These are elementary schools, called "*tera-koya*," and are to be found everywhere. The teachers in these institutions are called *tenarai disho;* and among them are women as well as men. Both sexes attend these schools, though the boys and girls are separated from each other. In these schools, too, there are no holidays, save on the 1st, the 15th, and the 28th of every month, which are festivals. Every day the pupils receive tasks, which have to be done at home. Every week there is an examination (or repetition of the instruction) made in writing.

In the government schools there are two examinations each year. There is in these institutions no punishment, except temporary suspension and expulsion; but in private schools turbulent or idle pupils are obliged to quit their seats and remain standing. During this punishment the culprit dares not move, having given into his hands a lighted stick of a spongy kind of wood, which he has to hold without stirring, till it slowly burns down to his fingers—when he throws it away, and resumes his seat. In extreme cases, depending on the length of the stick, this punishment lasts several hours. Sometimes the punishment is heightened by putting into the culprit's other hand a vessel filled to the brim with water, and compelling him to hold it with out spilling a drop till the stick is burned.

There are also cases in which pupils are bound hand and foot to a chair, or beaten with bamboo or other rods. These punishments are in general mild and humane, compared with those to which pupils are subjected in the schools of other Asiatic countries, where a child is often bound with a common cord, pitilessly drawn up by the feet, and the bastinado inflicted on his naked soles, to the barbarous delight of his fellow-scholars, who frequently take an active part in the torture.

The Japanese language is extremely difficult to learn; indeed it is the greatest obstacle which foreign nations encounter in their intercourse with the inhabitants of Japan, who have lived so rigorously secluded from the rest of the world. Its study has to be commenced in early years, and an extensive and thorough acquaintance with the proverbi-

ally difficult language of China is an indispensable pre-requisite to a fair knowledge of Japanese. It is necessary, however, to distinguish between the spoken language of Japan, and that which is used only in literary composition. Of the former, the colloquial Japanese, as much as is needed for the common purposes of every-day life, can in a measure be acquired by routine and a prolonged stay among the people of that country. This is far less arduous than the acquisition of the incomparably more difficult language of the Japanese books. But even in this merely conversational tongue, we meet with many things which render the pupil's progress very slow, his final mastery of it very uncertain, and its study exceedingly tedious. These difficulties affect its pronunciation, as well as its syntactical structure: they apply, moreover, to its idiomatic peculiarities, and have an important relation to the intricate rules of Japanese etiquette and politeness.

GEOGRAPHY AS A CIVILIZER.

"IT will never be believed," wrote an officer in MacMahon's army, whose letter was captured *en route* in the latter part of August by the Prussians—"it will never be believed that, although the design of invading Germany has been abandoned for at least a fortnight, the Ministry have as yet sent us no maps of France. I have in my suite a cartload of excellent maps of Prussia, but not a single one of France, except the abortion which is sold under the name of the 'Theatre of War.' Nor has my General a map of our country either good or bad. General Ducrot, who commands in place of MacMahon, has a few maps, but his staff officers have not a solitary one. When we were at Strasbourg, quietly making the plan of campaign, General Lebrettevillois begged for plans of the German fortresses which we might have to besiege. The answer was that they would be forthcoming at the proper time. Well, when we were in full retreat, one desperately rainy day

between Lunéville and Bayon, we received a precious package: it contained plans of Rastadt, Germersheim, and Landau!"

This anecdote might pass for merely an illustration of the incapacity of the rulers of France; but it has a much deeper significance. A nation which invades another, without knowing what roads to take or what difficulties it must encounter, and yet makes no provision for a counter-invasion, cannot be permitted to shift the blame upon the War Department. The fault goes back to the primary schools, or to the absence of them, or, let us say at once, to the national character, for that it is which has kept France ignorant of herself as well as of her neighbors. And what, indeed, could the study of geography, and political economy, and of censuses, and the reading of newspapers published in barbarous languages, profit the grand nation, as it loved to call itself, which set lessons for all the world to copy from, manufactured ideas for the rest of Europe, led the van of progress—and for twenty years followed the chariot of a domestic despot like any other captive? There is another people of great skill in the arts, scrupulous of forms, fond of display, boastful to the last degree, and which makes the same pretence of leading the universe, while eaten up with licentiousness, and ground by a cruel and extortionous tyranny—we call it China. France is the China of Europe, as China is the France of Asia. The Rhine and the Chinese Wall have served the same purpose for two empires, intrenched in ignorance and self-complacency. They have exchanged self-government for revolutions, and their ferocity in civil warfare is the same in kind, and that kind the most savage that can be conceived of.

Laboulaye, in a satire which now returns upon himself, proved his countrymen barbarians by the standard of Aristotle. In these days the test of any people's civilization is its opinion of itself, and its knowledge of other peoples. One of the greatest misfortunes that arose in this country out of the institution of slavery, was the barrier it presented to free intercourse between the two sections. Few even of the Southern political leaders got farther North than Washington; and if Toombs could have made several visits to

Bunker Hill instead of the famous one which never took place, we may be sure he would have been a much more moderate fire-eater than the Rebellion proved him. It is told of one of his more or less noted associates who was for a while a guest in Connecticut, that after having been driven through a certain manufacturing town of considerable extent, he asked to be shown the homes of the poor; and yet he had seen all. Northern pauperism had been represented to be a growing and dangerous element that must inevitably break up free society, clamoring for an equal distribution of land and goods, and ready to be the ally of any enemy that might assail the Northern capitalists (as the well-to-do classes were usually designated) from within or without. This was the fundamental mistake of the Rebellion, by which it would have to be condemned even if no fault could be found with its objects. The humane sense of Christendom is agreed that revolutions are justifiable only when there is a reasonable chance of success. Not only was this not so, considering the material and physical forces of the two sides, but it must have been seen to be so if any pains had been taken to learn the truth by personal observation. But here political cunning had overreached itself. The census was manipulated in the interest of the South, and even then was not studied as it ought to have been; while Southern text-books took care to cultivate ignorance of and contempt for the North, and to represent the South as the flower of civilization, whose very products made it the ruler or controller of every other people. When cotton was king, every Southern-born child felt himself a natural sovereign, and for aught he cared New York might be within a hundred miles of the North Pole, or have ten millions of inhabitants: it remained his province. The actual ignorance of the geography and population of the North, and of its capacity for carrying on war or resisting invasion was so dense, that nothing but five years of warfare could overcome it.

That the Indians on the plains should be misinformed of the strength of the whites was due to our having treated them as enemies ever since the government was formed. When a crisis was imminent last summer, and it seemed as if nothing could save us from a general outbreak, ending, it

might be, in the extermination of the tribes, the late Secretary of the Interior—with a wisdom which it is to be feared we shall not soon see again installed in the same place—arranged for the visit of Red Cloud and his fellow chiefs to the Capital and the Northern cities. The meeting at Cooper Institute will be remembered, at which Red Cloud seemed to abate nothing of his complaints, which were, in fact, very just ones. Yet, no sooner had he got back to his tribe, than he became the most powerful peace missionary we have ever had. He saw the hopelessness of contending with a civilization of which he had before had no conception; he had taken his first step in civilization himself. It was also his first lesson in geography.

A very natural apprehension exists in regard to the experiment of adding Chinese to our already complex society. Irishmen are arriving every day by the hundred who cannot read or write, who have no ambition to learn, whose wants are few, tastes and habits low, superstition immense, manual skill hardly above the lowest form of muscular exertion; and nobody objects. Nor is anybody alarmed, except the thoughtful few, who look forward to the time when these immigrants are to become voters, and to influence the destinies of the country. The Chinese, on the other hand, are the most ingenious people that have ever come among us, and, if report is to be credited, they are almost without exception instructed from childhood in reading and writing. We might say that they are the product of common-school education, and that from this point of view they are just the material for American Republican discipline. How is it, then, that they seem so much more formidable than the Irish, or other ignorant European immigrants, accustomed to be contented with their lot, and to regard knowledge as the special privilege of the rich? Let us, Yankee fashion, answer this question by asking another—When Ah-Sin or Ah-Sin's son goes to school, as we shall in self-defence compel him to if he doesn't go there voluntarily, what is the first book we should place in his hands, supposing him to have mastered the language tolerably well? A zealous partisan of retaining the Bible in the schools might think that a page of the New Testament committed by heart each day would

be better than any other instruction for making this future citizen fit to be merged with native Americans. With all deference to this opinion, it may be urged that an atlas would be of more service than a Testament, and that our first duty should be to supply in our secular schools precisely the defect of the schooling in China.

The two highest means of culture, it will not be disputed, are the university and travel—the one enables us to measure ourselves with other individuals of our own kind, the other to judge of our rank in the scale of mankind. The one destroys personal, the other national, conceit. Each serves to disillusion us, by bringing us face to face with the reality. It is here that the European boy has the advantage of the Chinese boy, who knows nothing of history, nothing of the political divisions of the globe, nothing of national characteristics and progress and resources, and is taught to believe in the infinite superiority of his own land and countrymen over anything that the world has produced, or can possibly produce. Emigration, however, must in the long run do the same for Ah-Sin as for Red Cloud, by forcing a comparison between the inferior and superior civilization. Germans who have lived for many years in this country, frequently return home, but seldom can endure to stay there—a fact which may console us when we feel oppressed by the sudden eminence of the Prussian character. The Chinaman who returns alive to the Flowery Kingdom, cannot possibly view things as he did when he left, even if he has received no training whatever during his stay in America. His discontent and mortification ought to be all the greater when by books he has been made acquainted with that world of outside barbarism which seemed so despicable when viewed from Shanghai or Pekin. Better than if he went armed with hymn-books will it be if he goes back with a library that embraces history, geography, and comparative statistics, or, in other words, with exact notions of the non-Chinese parts and inhabitants of the earth, and the habit of observing the progress made by them in order to profit by it. Or if he stays, we may rest assured that, morality being much the same the world over, and the Chinese exclusiveness having been once overcome to make way for our theology, as well

as for our theory of government, the Republic can endure the strain which he will at first put upon it. His children, like the German's and the Irishman's and the Swede's children, we shall be at liberty to mould as we please; and that the Chinese-American so reared will not add something worth having to the force and ingenuity of the conglomerate known as the American people, he would be a rash man who should venture to assert.

P. CHAMITE.

THE LAW AS TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT. *

"'Tis best to make the law your friend,
And patiently await:
Keep your side good, and you are sure
To conquer, soon or late."

A School-master is liable criminally if, in inflicting punishment upon his pupil, he goes beyond the limit of reasonable castigation, and, either in the mode or degree of correction, is guilty of any unreasonable or disproportionate violence or force; and whether the punishment was excessive under the circumstances of any case, is a question for the jury. (Commonwealth *v.* Randall, 4 Gray, 36; 3 Greenl. on Ev. sec. 63.) He is also liable to be dismissed for cruelty. Teachers are not often barbarous, yet it may not be improper to state here that the law is a strong power to protect the weak from injustice, and to take from the strong a full equivalent for the wrongs which they may commit. When the Hon. John A. Dix was Superintendent of Schools for the State of New York, he gave the following as his opinion: The practice of inflicting *corporal punishment* upon scholars, *in any case whatever*, has no sanction but usage. The teacher is responsible for maintaining good order, and he must be the judge of the degree and nature of the punishment required when his authority is set at defiance. At the same time he is liable to the party injured for any abuse of a prerogative *which is wholly derived from custom.* (Supt.

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* From Walsh's "Lawyer in the School Room."

Common Schools Decisions, 102.) Many very well-informed and well-meaning people are, in these latter days, beginning to doubt whether corporal punishment is under any circumstances advisable or excusable. The Supreme Court of Indiana expresses itself on this subject as follows: The law still tolerates corporal punishment in the school-room. The authorities are all that way, and the legislature has not thought proper to interfere. The public seems to cling to a despotism in the government of schools which has been discarded everywhere else. Whether such training be congenial to our institutions, and favorable to the full development of the future man, is worthy of serious consideration, though not for us to discuss. In one respect the tendency of the rod is so evidently evil that it might perhaps be arrested on the ground of public policy. The practice has an inherent proneness to abuse. The very act of whipping engenders passion, and very generally leads to excess. Where one or two stripes only were intended, several usually follow, each increasing in vigor as the act of striking inflames the passions. This is a matter of daily observation and experience. Hence the spirit of the law is, and the leaning of the courts should be, to discountenance a practice which tends to excite human passions to heated and excessive action, ending in abuse and breaches of the peace. Such a system of petty tyranny can not be watched too cautiously, nor guarded too strictly. The tender age of the sufferers forbids that its slightest abuse should be tolerated. So long as the power to punish corporally in schools exists, it needs to be put under wholesome restrictions. Teachers should, therefore, understand that whenever correction is administered in anger or insolence, or in any other manner than in moderation and kindness, accompanied with that affectionate moral suasion so eminently due from one placed by the law "*in loco parentis*"—in the sacred relation of parent—the court must consider them guilty of assault and battery, the more aggravated and wanton in proportion to the tender years and dependent position of the pupil. It can hardly be doubted but that public opinion will, in time, strike the ferule from the hands of the teacher, leaving him, as the true basis of government, only the resources of his intel-

lect and heart. Such is the only policy worthy of the State, and of her otherwise enlightened and liberal institutions. It is the policy of progress. The husband can no longer moderately chastise his wife; nor, according to the more recent authorities, the master his servant or apprentice. Even the degrading cruelties of the naval service have been arrested. Why the person of the school-boy, "with his shining morning face," should be less sacred in the eye of the law than that of the apprentice or sailor, is not easily explained. It is regretted that such are the authorities, still courts are bound by them. All that can be done, without the aid of legislation, is to hold every case strictly within the rule; and if the correction be in anger, or in any other respect immoderately or improperly administered, to hold the unworthy perpetrator guilty of assault and battery. The law having elevated the teacher to the place of the parent, if he is still to sustain that sacred relation, "it becomes him to be careful in the exercise of his authority, and not make his power a pretext for cruelty and oppression." (14 Johns. R. 119.) Whenever he undertakes to exercise it, *the cause* must be sufficient; *the instrument* suitable to the purpose; *the manner and extent* of the correction, *the part of the person* to which it is applied, *the temper* in which it is inflicted—all should be distinguished with the kindness, prudence, and propriety which become the station. (Cooper *v.* McJunkin, 4 Indiana R. 290.) This court has more sympathy for roguish youths and less for hectored teachers than any other, we believe, in the land. To our mind the reason why the law gives the teacher the right to punish is very clear and easily explained, but it does not seem to be so to this court.

A parent is justified in correcting a child either corporally or by confinement, and a school-master under whose care and instruction a parent has placed his child is equally justified in similar correction; but the correction in both cases must be moderate, and in a proper manner. A school-master stands *in loco parentis* in relation to the pupils committed to his charge, while they are under his care, so far as to enforce obedience to his commands, lawfully given in his capacity of school-master, and he may therefore enforce

them by moderate correction. (Com. Dig. Pleader, 3, M. 19; Hawk. c. 60, sec. 23; and c. 62, sec. 2; c. 29, sec. 5.) To use the language of Chief-Justice Holt, "A master may justify the beating of his scholar, if the beating be in the nature of correction only, and with a proper instrument."—(Precedents of Pleas, 2 R. P. C. P. 47–51; Rastall's Ent. 613, pl. 18; 2 Chit. pl. 533; 9 Wend. 355; Peterdorff, Index, 296.) The power allowed by law to the parent over the person of the child may be delegated to a tutor or instructor, the better to accomplish the purpose of education. (2 Kent Com. 205.) A school-master stands *in loco parentis*, and may in proper cases inflict moderate and reasonable chastisement. (The State *vs.* Pendergast, 2 Dev. & Battle, 365.) Although a town (or common) school is instituted by the statute, the children are to be considered as put in charge of the instructor for the same purpose, and to be clothed with the same power, as when he is directly employed by the parent. The power of the parent to restrain and coerce obedience in children can not be doubted, and it has seldom or never been denied. The power delegated to the master by the parent must be accompanied, for the time, with the same right as incidental, or the object sought must fail of accomplishment. (Stevens *v.* Fassett, 27 Maine, 280.) The tutor or school-master has such a portion of the power of the parent to restrain and correct as may be necessary to answer the purposes for which he was employed. (1 Blackstone, 453.) The power must be temperately exercised, however, and no school-master should feel himself at liberty to administer chastisement coextensively with the parent, however much the infant delinquent might appear to have deserved it. (3 Barnwell & Alderson's R. 584.) If a person over twenty-one years of age voluntarily attend a town (or any) school, and is received as a scholar by the instructor, he has the same rights and duties, and is under the same restrictions and liabilities, as if he were under the age of twenty-one years. (27 Maine, 266.) This, it will be understood, is true generally, but there may, of course, be a special contract, which, when it exists and is legally made, may give unusual rights and privileges to either party. Where a scholar, in school hours, places himself (with or

without permission) in the desk of the instructor, and refuses to leave it on the request of the master, such scholar may be lawfully removed by the master; and for that purpose he may immediately use such force, and call to his assistance such aid, from any other person, (or persons,) as may be necessary to accomplish the object; and the case is the same if the person removed is over twenty-one years of age, or not a scholar, but a person having no right in the school. The school-house is in the charge and under the control of the authorized teacher, so far as is necessary for the performance of his duties as teacher. The law clothes every person with the power to use force sufficient to remove one who is an intruder upon his possessions, and the school-house is for certain purposes the teacher's close, his kingdom, or his castle. The teacher has responsible duties to perform, and he is entitled in law and in reason to employ the means necessary therefor. It is his business to exact obedience in the school-room, and it is his legal right. (Stevens *v.* Fassett, 27 Maine, 266.)—*(To be continued.)*

THE SCHOOLS OF THE FRENCH PEASANTRY.

THE *Nation*, in one of its admirable articles on the peculiarities of the French national character, remarks, that it might be worth the while to *look into the French school books.* Indeed it would. It is especially amusing to read the few existing elementary text books on geography or history, in all of which Clovis and Charlemagne figure as "French Kings," the same as Henry IV. and Louis XIV., and in which history is either derived from the notorious bulletins of the First Empire, or made up in a style closely resembling them. But many of our readers may not be aware of the fact that "text books" exist only in comparatively few "French schools." What should they, indeed, do with text books where the accomplishments of reading and writing are as unknown as Sanscrit is in our

common schools? French village schools meet once a week on Sundays, and the priest (almost always a Jesuit) is teacher, board of trustees, and superintendent, in one person. This excellent contrivance does away with red tape in the most effectual manner. We may easily imagine with what kind of food such a personage regales the hungry minds of his pupils. The fruit of this training is that inconceivable ignorance and infatuation of the French people which we see more and more exposed in their whole nakedness. The main object of all these so-called schools seems to be to inflate the minds of the people with fabulous and wild ideas of French greatness and superiority. What the Guizots, Thiers, and Lamartines are or have been doing with the "intelligent few," in a more subtle and shrewd manner, the plain village priests are performing more "palpably" in the country. Here their task is infinitely easier and plainer, since to the souls committed to their care the dangerous agency of the printing press has no access. Thus they may be bolder in the suppression or misrepresentation of truth. The French village priest tells his people plainly that Adam, the first man, was a born Frenchman. Shem and Ham, the lineal ascendants of the negroes and Prussians, were nothing but degenerate Frenchmen. Germany is a small country somewhere near the North Pole, inhabited by savages, and tyrannized by the Prussian King, who is an ogre, killing his subjects by way of pastime. Julius Cæsar was the great founder of the French Empire; Clovis, Charlemagne, Napoleon, were his descendants. The French village boy is told over and again that life is not worth having beyond the frontiers of his country. Hence the aversion of the French peasantry to emigrate. Although the French peasant is the most stupid and neglected of human beings, he yet lives and dies in the firm belief that he, as a Frenchman, is infinitely superior to all foreigners. Among the French peasantry the worship of the First Napoleon is hardly less intense than that of the Virgin Mary. His history has been turned into a mythology, similar to the hero-worship of the ancients. It would be of the highest psychological interest to collect the legends and tales circulating among the French peasantry about the little corporal, who made

French peasants and tavern-keepers mighty kings, and was captured by the savages and thrown into prison because he loved France too well.

Not one of the different French Governments that have followed each other for more than eighty years, has ever attempted to educate the masses. We hope that the terrible penalty which the whole nation is now paying for this neglect, will serve to the next Government as a lesson, and make them appropriate to education a great part of the sums which heretofore were thrown away for maintaining a useless army and navy.

W. PERRY.

EMINENT EDUCATORS DECEASED.

DEATH has been busy, as usual, during the year among the eminent scholars and teachers of Christendom. About sixty, of wide reputation, have fallen, mostly in the ranks of higher education. Eleven of these were, at the time of their death, or had previously been, presidents of colleges, several of them of more than one institution. Among these were the venerable Dr. Longstreet, who had presided successively over four Southern Universities; the able and not less venerable Dr. Lord, so long President of Dartmouth College; the lamented Bishop Thomson, whose remarkable learning and versatility of talent qualified him for the most varied positions; the Bishop of Chichester, who was for many years Vice-Chancellor and Acting President of Oxford University; Rev. Dr. Matthews, who in the early history of the University of the City of New York was its Chancellor; General Lee, who, though coming late into the ranks of College Presidents, left behind him a high reputation as a teacher; Dr. McClintock, who added the graces of the orator to the learning of the sage; and Drs. W. C. Anderson, Colver, and Cunningham, whose fame was less only because their services had been more brief.

In the list of eminent professors deceased are many equally illustrious names, but we will not enumerate them now. In

our next we shall give brief biographies of the most distinguished, prepared by the same experienced hand which, in the past, has given us memorials of the eminent dead of other years.

FICTION AS AN EDUCATOR.

WE believe that every one who reads at all, every one to whom books were anything in childhood—and it may be taken for granted that all readers in manhood were readers in childhood—every man who ever took up a book for his diversion, can look back to some particular book as an event in his inner history; can trace to it a start in thought, an impulse directing the mind in channels unknown before, but since familiar and part of his very being. He perhaps wonders how the book, being such as it is, should have wrought such marvels, but of the fact he cannot doubt: he was different after reading it from what he was before; his mind was opened by it, his interests widened, his views extended, his sense of life quickened. And he will surely find that the book thus influential came to him by a sort of chance, through no act of authority or intention. He seemed to find it for himself: it was a discovery. His teachers had surrounded him with books, whether of instruction or amusement, suited to his dawning faculties; but to these, however well adapted to their purpose, he can trace no conscious signal obligation. No doubt he owes much to them, but the methods and processes are lost. As far as his mind is stored and cultivated they have an important share in the work; but his memory is treacherous as to individual services. They are associated with the routine of duty, when the fancy is hard to enlist. Because they were suited there was nothing to startle.

Books are founders of families as well as men—not meaning the great books, the folios that overshadow the world of thought and teach ages and generations to write and think with a family likeness—the Aristotles, Augustines,

Bacons, and so forth; but books of infinitely less weight, composed under certain conditions of fervor and vivacity. For we take it that no book gives the start we mean, let who will be the author, which was not composed in heat of spirit to satisfy a necessity for expression, and with vigor of execution.

It may be granted that of all reading, novel-reading, as usually performed, is the slightest of intellectual exercises—one that may be discontinued with least perceptible loss to the understanding. As we view the enormous amount of novels issuing from the press, it can be said of few that any of the readers for whom they are expressly written are materially the better for them. A chat with a neighbor, or a nap, or a game at bezique, would fulfil every purpose they effect on the jaded, hackneyed attention. Any one of the three modes of passing an hour would leave as lasting an impression as the average serial manufactured for the monthly demand by even fairly skilful hands—that is, on the mind familiar with such productions. Yet to judge by the autobiography of genius, the novel plays a part second to none—we might almost say, the foremost part—in the awakening of its powers. It is a point on which memory and present observation are not only not agreed, but strangely and absolutely at odds. There is no comparison between the novel of recollection and the novel of to-day. We do not mean in literary merit, but in the sway and telling power on the reader. Who can forget his first novel? the tale that entranced his childhood, introducing him to those supreme ideas of hero and heroine; opening a new world to him—not the nursery, school-room, play-ground world, but a veritable field of cloth-of-gold, of beauty, achievement, adventure, great deeds, success! He reads the story now, and wonders where its power lay—that is, unless his lucky star threw some masterpiece in his way, such as "Ivanhoe," entrancing to childhood, and still delightful at every age. But this is a chance. The exquisite vision of life may have come in the shape of a classical story—the action is stilted to his mature taste, the language turgid. Or in a tale of chivalry, he can only laugh now at impossible feats of heroism. It may have been an historical

romance, such as Thaddeus of Warsaw, which Thackeray harps upon: the whole thing strikes him as at once false and dull. It may have been a tale of passion, flimsy to his mature judgment, though the author's heart was in it. His mind can scarcely, by an effort, revive even a faint echo of the old absorbing excitement; but not the less is he sensible of a lasting influence—a permanent impression following upon the first enchantment.

Who that has felt it but will class such hours among the marked ones of his life? What a passionate necessity to unravel the plot, to pursue the hero in his course; what a craving for the next volume, stronger than any bodily appetite; what exultation in success; what suspense when the crisis nears; what pity and tears in the tragic moments; what shame in these tears—the shame that attends all strong emotions—as they are detected by unsympathizing, quizzing observers: shame leading to indignant, protesting, pertinacious denials, haunting the conscience still, and deceiving no one! What a blank when the last leaf is turned, and all is over!

Who cannot contrast the weariness with which he now tosses the last novel aside, with the eager devices of his childhood to elude pursuit and discovery, to get out of earshot, or to turn a deaf ear, when the delightful book is in his grasp which is to usher him into another world? What ingenuity in hiding, behind hedges, in out-houses and garrets —nay, amongst the beams and rafters of the roof, to which neither nurse nor governess, nor mamma herself, has ever penetrated. Even the appearance of the book devoured under these circumstances lives a vivid memory—torn page, thumb-marks, and all. But it is the way of such things to disappear when their mission is accomplished—to elude all search; though for some we would willingly give as much as ever book-hunter did for a rare pamphlet.

If it were possible, as has been more than once attempted, by a system of rigorous and vigilant exclusion, to confine an intelligent child's education within certain exactly defined limits—to impart what is called an admirable grounding in all exact knowledge, and at the same time to shut out every form of fiction from its mind—to allow it to receive no im-

pressions through the fancy—to compel its powers of thought and perception into one prescribed direction,—to suffer it to read and hear nothing but fact, to imbibe nothing but what is called useful knowledge, to receive its history purified of all legend, its grammar without illustration, its arithmetic without supposed cases, its religion through direct precept only,—and to compare it with another child of equal age and powers, which had learnt nothing laboriously, nothing but through unrestricted observation and the free use of its senses—knowing nothing that lessons teach, reading, if it could read, only for amusement,—but familiar from infancy with legendary lore, fairy tales, and the floating romances of social life,—some interesting conclusions might be drawn. As the first case is an impossible one, we can only surmise which mind would be most developed, which would be possessed of the truest, because most clearly and largely apprehended knowledge. Either system is mischievous followed out to its full length: these victims of experiment or neglect would each be wanting, perhaps permanently, in supremely important elements of intellectual power; but there is no doubt what would be the voice of experience as to the extent of loss where the higher faculties are in question. All the men of genius who tell us anything of themselves give it—whether intentionally or not—in favor of feeding and exciting the imagination from the first dawn of thought, as a condition of quickening that faculty in time, and sustaining the human race at a due elevation.* There are indeed dry men, who are satisfied with the restrictive system which made them what they are, by stopping some of the mind's outlets for good and all; while Fancy's child, on the contrary, is often painfully conscious of something missing, some strength needed to carry out the brain's conceptions: but satisfaction with an intellectual status is no warrant for its justice. The poet has both types

* Bearing upon our subject is a well-considered lecture recently delivered and since published by Lord Neaves on "Fiction as a Means of Popular Teaching." The line of thought leads him chiefly to dwell on the value of parable and fable as moral teachers for all time and every age. His numerous examples in prose and spirited verse are not only apt and varied, but show a familiar acquaintance with the literature, both European and Oriental, of the subject.

in his thought when he pictures the model child, the growth of the system of his day, as

> "A miracle of scientific lore,
> Ships he can guide across the pathless sea,
> And tell you all their cunning; he can read
> The inside of the earth, and spell the stars;
> He knows the policies of foreign lands;
> Can string you names of districts, cities, towns,
> The whole world over, tight as beads of dew
> Upon a gossamer thread; he sifts, he weighs;
> All things are put to question; he must live
> Knowing that he grows wiser every day
> Or else not live at all, and seeing too
> Each little drop of wisdom as it falls
> Into the dimpling cistern of his heart;"

and contrasts the little prig with the child expatiating, all unconscious of itself, in the free range of fiction and fairy-land. It is thus Wordsworth congratulates Coleridge on their mutual escape:—

> "Oh! where had been the man? the poet where?—
> Where had we been, we two, beloved friend,
> If in the season of unperilous choice,
> In lieu of wandering, as we did, through vales
> Rich with indigenous produce, open ground
> Of fancy, happy pastures ranged at will,
> We had been followed, hourly watched, and noosed,
> Each in his several melancholy walk;
> Stringed, like a poor man's heifer, at its feed,
> Led through the lanes in forlorn servitude;
> Or rather, like a stalled ox, debarred
> From touch of growing grass, that may not taste
> A flower till it have yielded up its sweets
> A prelibation to the mower's scythe?"

It is common, however, for men of genius to complain in their own case of a defective intermittent education in a tone which gives it for elaborate training; it is their grievance against their special belongings or against society generally. They assume their imagination a giant no chains could have bound; while exacter, more varied, and deeper knowledge would have added strength and power to their crowning faculty. We discover this querulous humility in

men who have acquired distinction; to whom, therefore, the world allows the privilege of talking about themselves. They are aware of inequalities, and perhaps feel themselves pulled back by deficiencies which would not have disturbed them had their education been more regular and systematic at some early period when they were left to themselves, and allowed to follow their own devices. Under the desired circumstances their powers would have been more on a level. This is probable, but the level might be attained through the checked exuberance of their highest and most distinguishing faculty; a sacrifice they would be little prepared for, though the average of capability might be raised. —*(To be continued.)—Blackwood's Magazine.*

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART FIFTH.

"*Let, then, clerkes endyten in Latyn, for they have the propertye in science and the knowinge in that facultye, and lette Frenchmen in theyr Frenche also endyte theyr queynt termes, for it is kyndly to theyr mouthes; and let us shewe our fantasyes in suche wordes as we learneden of our dames tonge.*" GEOFFREY CHAUCER.

REVIVING ENGLISH, 1350–1558.

THE period before us covers two centuries, extending from the revived patriotism at the time of the foreign wars of Edward III. to the accession of queen Elizabeth. It includes the reign of two sovereigns of the house of Plantagenet, six of the houses of Lancaster and York, and two of the Tudor family, of which Elizabeth was the last to sit upon the throne.

The intellectual activity was greater at the beginning and end of the period, while the century filling the middle is not remarkable for its great literary names. This century is marked in history by the civil strife known as the Wars of the Roses. The first group of authors is that clustered about Wiclif and Chaucer, and the latter is naturally asso-

ciated with the names of More, Tindale, Latimer, Cranmer and Knox. Between the two we see the Printing Press, the invention of which dates from about 1440.

Patriotism and religion united to a strong foreign influence appear to have been the great inciting powers in this reviving of our literature. The people at the beginning were awakened to a sense of their political importance; they were stirred by Wiclif and the lively author of the Vision of Piers Plowman; they were charmed by the genial and original creations of Chaucer; their progress was accelerated by the invention of printing; their range of vision was widened by the discoveries of the Genoese navigator; and their spiritual and moral traits were strengthened by recourse to the new translation of the Bible.

The language having already, by one revolution, lost its synthetic grammar, was now, by a second grand change, to lose its homogeneity, and to enter the *composite* state in which it still remains. The process of growth which had effected a radical change in its inflections, is now exhibited in the vocabulary itself. In this second great revolution, Geoffrey Chaucer, of all our writers, was the most efficient agent. While the extract at the head of this paper truly expresses his views, he was by no means blind to the legitimate use to be made of expressive foreign words, by incorporating them in our language.

We have mentioned the French wars as having been a great power in reviving English literature at this time, and the foreign literary influence that effectually worked in the same direction. The latter we find in Italy. Florence was a notable centre of commercial activity before the days of Chaucer, and that it was also a literary centre is not surprising to him who considers the power of social influences upon mankind, and especially upon the sensitive nature of educated men. Chaucer went to Italy in 1373, and, though Dante had been long dead, the English poet must have visited Petrarch, and the lively condition of literature in general there, as well as the writings of the Italian masters of verse and prose, had a powerful influence upon him, and through him, upon a limited circle of other writers in our language.

Before Chaucer, however, there arose a most notable writer, who, thoroughly English in sentiment and expression, marks the revival as it occurred independent of foreign influence. Authorities differ as to who this author was, but his work is well known, and is in our hand, most thoroughly edited and very highly prized. In the unpublished words of one of our greatest American literary critics, "there is none other poem in any language comparable with it in its own artless way. Its very garrulity is charming, and it sets off, as nothing else could, the reserve and forethought of Chaucer." There is an "exquisite relish in this benignly naive old soul which had so fine an "instinct for the divine in common things." The work thus highly extolled is entitled *The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman*, and is, like the vision of John Bunyan, a graphic description of the difficulties of a pilgrimage through this life. It apparently gave suggestions to Edmund Spenser, and stands forth as the first allegory in our language. Its interest is of a very different sort from that of Chaucer's works, and while we admire its pictures of life and its true English boldness in fighting error, we must still allow that as our first modern English poet Geoffrey Chaucer stands without a rival.

Just before him was Sir John Mandeville, who is generally called the first writer of modern English prose. He was an extensive traveler, and in his writings gives us pictures of what he saw and heard.

A modest and almost forgotten worthy now claims attention. Like the author of Piers Plowman, we know little of him except by his work, but that is well known by all students of English romance. Sir Thomas Malory, about the year 1470, published the first connected account in English of the romances of king Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. These had been put into form first by Geoffery of Monmouth, in his pretended History of Britain, and a few years later had been reproduced in French by Richard Wace. They had been introduced by Laymon into his *Brut*, with considerable amplification. How few who to-day read Tennyson's new versions of these same stories, and to whom Merlin, Tom Thumb, Lancelot, Tristram and

the Holy Grail are familiar, ever trouble themselves about the knight whose chivalrous love of the legends of his land incited to gather into one the fragments of story that had so long influenced Englishmen, and for which the romantic of the latest century will owe a debt of gratitude!

In this age of revival we find also the first of our satiric romances. It was written in Latin, but it is none the less the fruit of the English mind. It is entitled *Utopia*, and was written by the upright and conscientious friend of Erasmus, Sir Thomas More, whom we love to contemplate with his loved wife, enjoying their happy Chelsea home.

We find here too, the origin of the English church polity, and of the Book of Common Prayer. Here is the first English Comedy—*Ralph Royster Doyster*;—the first treatise on Education—*Ascham's Schoolmaster*;—and the origin of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland and the United States.

From this period we trace that silver thread of Arthurian romance, which binds our century with the earliest days of England by a cord of human sympathy: and we also see a brighter, golden thread of diviner, power, which in the English versions of the Word of God connects all the ages in their order with Him who existed before the foundations of the earth were laid!

The *Paston Letters*, the first specimens of this kind of English literature, constitute an interesting feature in our view of this period. They consist of a series of familiar epistles running through the years from 1422 to 1505, written by persons of rank or consequence, and containing many details of private and public affairs at the time of the Wars of the Roses. They illustrate in an interesting way the turbulent years in the middle of the period before us. We shall only refer to them as showing the books in the library of John Paston, of Norfolk, as they have been collected by Professor Morley. Among the titles are—*Troilus and Cressida*, by Chaucer; *Parliament of Birds*, by Chaucer; *Temple of Glass*, by Lydgate; *Belle Dame sans Merci*, by Alain Chartier; *Guy Earl of Warwick; Guy and Colbrond; The Green Knight; The Death of King Arthur; Lamentations of the Child Ypotis; King Richard Cœur de Lion; Palatyse*

and Sirtacus; The Disputation between Hope and Despair; Meeds of the Mass; A Prayer to the Vernycle; Cicero de Senectute; Cicero de Amicitia; Cicero de Sapientia, and *Myn olde boke off Blasonyngs off armes.*

So this literary country gentleman, who lived at the time of the invention of printing, owned a library composed of a few books of morals and religion, books connected with law and chivalry, some of Chaucer's works, and a few romances. The romance of the Green Knight, is one of the tales of Sir Gawaine, Arthur's nephew; and the Lamentation of the Child Ypotis, is a legend said to have been attested to St. John the Evangelist, of a holy child whom the Emperor Adrian at Rome set on his knees.

Very little importance is given by some writers and students to the literature of the period we now close. Some of our text-books actually contain no reference to any author before Mandeville and Chaucer. "But," as Professor Morely remarks, "our Chaucer was only a middle link in a long chain. Before his birth the literature of this country had maintained, for a longer time than has passed since his birth, a prominent place in the intellectual history of Europe. To say nothing of the yet earlier Beowulf, English Cædmon poured the soul of a Christian poet into noble song six hundred and fifty years before Chaucer was born. Six centuries before Chaucer, Bede, foremost of Christian scholars, was the historian of England, and Chaucer wrote his Canterbury Tales not quite five centuries ago. . . . . It is only because we have done so much during these five centuries, and every stroke of the work has told upon our present, that we are content to look upon Wiclif, Chaucer, Gower, and the author of Piers Plowman, as men of remote time who lived in the dim caves about the bubbling sources of our literature. . . . . In prose and verse for century after century before the time of Chaucer, there was a literature here of home-speaking earnestness; practical wit and humor that attacked substantial ills of life; sturdy resistance against tyrannies in Church and State; and as the root of all its strength, a faithful reverence for God."

It only remains for us to give a list of the names of some

of the other writers of the period of Reviving English, to whom our limits do not permit us to refer at length.

Ranulph Higden	fl.	1360	Blind Harry, minstrel	fl.	1460
William of Wykeham	fl.	1379	Stephen Hawes	—	1506
John de Trevisa	fl.	1385	William Dunbar		1460–1520
Andrew Wyntoun		1350–1420	John Colet		1466–1519
Duke of Suffolk	—	1450	Gawain Douglas		1474–1522
Thomas Occleve		1370–1454	William Tyndale		1475–1536
John Lydgate		1375–1420	Alexander Barclay	—	1552
Robert Henryson		1425–1508	Bishop Nicholas Ridley		1475–1555
William Paston	—	1459	Sir David Lindsay		1490–1557
William Caxton		1412–1492	Sir Thomas Elyot		1495–1546
Sir John Fortescue		1430–1470	Reginald Pole		1500–1558
Bishop John Fisher		1450–1535	Archbishop Matthew Parker		1504–1575

ARTHUR GILMAN.

*WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?**

I.—THE ORNAMENTAL PRECEDES THE USEFUL: THE SHOWY PREDOMINATES.

IT has been truly remarked that, in order of time, decoration precedes dress. Among people who submit to great physical suffering that they may have themselves handsomely tattooed, extremes of temperature are borne with but little attempt at mitigation. Humboldt tells us that an Orinoco Indian, though quite regardless of bodily comfort, will yet labor for a fortnight to purchase pigment wherewith to make himself admired; and that the same woman who would not hesitate to leave her hut without a fragment of clothing on, would not dare to commit such a breach of decorum as to go out unpainted. Voyagers uniformly find that colored beads and trinkets are much more prized by wild tribes than are calicoes or broad-cloths. And the anecdotes we have of the ways in which, when shirts and coats are given, they turn them to some ludicrous display, show how completely the idea of ornament predominates over that of use. Nay, there are still more extreme illustrations: witness the fact narrated by Capt. Speke of his African attendants, who strutted about in their goat-

* From Appleton's excellent edition of Herbert Spencer, on Education.

skin mantles when the weather was fine, but when it was wet, took them off, folded them up, and went about naked, shivering in the rain! Indeed, the facts of aboriginal life seem to indicate that dress is developed out of decorations. And when we remember that even among ourselves most think more about the fineness of the fabric than its warmth, and more about the cut than the convenience—when we see that the function is still in great measure subordinated to the appearance—we have further reason for inferring such an origin.

It is not a little curious that the like relations hold with the mind. Among mental as among bodily acquisitions, the ornamental comes before the useful. Not only in times past, but almost as much in our own era, that knowledge which conduces to personal well-being has been postponed to that which brings applause. In the Greek schools, music, poetry, rhetoric, and a philosophy which, until Socrates taught, had but little bearing upon action, were the dominant subjects; while knowledge aiding the arts of life had a very subordinate place. And in our own universities and schools at the present moment the like antithesis holds. We are guilty of something like a platitude when we say that throughout his after-career a boy, in nine cases out of ten, applies his Latin and Greek to no practical purposes. The remark is trite that in his shop, or his office, in managing his estate or his family, in playing his part as director of a bank or a railway, he is very little aided by this knowledge he took so many years to acquire—so little, that generally the greater part of it drops out of his memory; and if he occasionally vents a Latin quotation, or alludes to some Greek myth, it is less to throw light on the topic in hand than for the sake of effect. If we inquire what is the real motive for giving boys a classical education, we find it to be simply conformity to public opinion. Men dress their children's minds as they do their bodies, in the prevailing fashion. As the Orinoco Indian puts on his paint before leaving his hut, not with a view to any direct benefit, but because he would be ashamed to be seen without it; so, a boy's drilling in Latin and Greek is insisted on, not because of their intrinsic value, but that he may not be disgraced by being found ignorant of them—that he may have

"the education of a gentleman"—the badge marking a certain social position, and bringing a consequent respect.

This parallel is still more clearly displayed in the case of the other sex. In the treatment of both mind and body, the decorative element has continued to predominate in a greater degree among women than among men. Originally, personal adornment occupied the attention of both sexes equally. In these latter days of civilization, however, we see that in the dress of men the regard for appearance has in a considerable degree yielded to the regard for comfort; while in their education the useful has of late been trenching on the ornamental. In neither direction has this change gone so far with women. The wearing of ear-rings, finger-rings, bracelets; the elaborate dressings of the hair; the still occasional use of paint; the immense labor bestowed in making habiliments sufficiently attractive; and the great discomfort that will be submitted to for the sake of conformity; show how greatly, in the attiring of women, the desire of approbation overrides the desire for warmth and convenience. And similarly in their education, the immense preponderance of "accomplishments" proves how here, too, use is subordinated to display. Dancing, deportment, the piano, singing, drawing—what a large space do these occupy! If you ask why Italian and German are learnt, you will find that, under all the sham reasons given, the real reason is, that a knowledge of those tongues is thought ladylike. It is not that the books written in them may be utilized, which they scarcely ever are; but that Italian and German songs may be sung, and that the extent of attainment may bring whispered admiration. The births, deaths, and marriages of kings, and other like historic trivialities, are committed to memory, not because of any direct benefits that can possibly result from knowing them; but because society considers them parts of a good education—because the absence of such knowledge may bring the contempt of others. When we have named reading, writing, spelling, grammar, arithmetic, and sewing, we have named about all the things a girl is taught with a view to their direct uses in life; and even some of these have more reference to the good opinion of others than to immediate personal welfare.

Thoroughly to realize the truth that with the mind as with the body the ornamental precedes the useful, it is needful to glance at its rationale. This lies in the fact that, from the far past down even to the present, social needs have subordinated individual needs, and that the chief social need has been the control of individuals. It is not, as we commonly suppose, that there are no governments but those of monarchs, and parliaments, and constituted authorities. These acknowledged governments are supplemented by other unacknowledged ones, that grow up in all circles, in which every man or woman strives to be king or queen or lesser dignitary. To get above some and be reverenced by them, and to propitiate those who are above us, is the universal struggle in which the chief energies of life are expended. By the accumulation of wealth, by style of living, by beauty of dress, by display of knowledge or intellect, each tries to subjugate others; and so aids in weaving that ramified net-work of restraints by which society is kept in order. It is not the savage chief only, who, in formidable war-paint, with scalps at his belt, aims to strike awe into his inferiors; it is not only the belle who, by elaborate toilet, polished manners, and numerous accomplishments, strives to "make conquests;" but the scholar, the historian, the philosopher, use their acquirements to the same end. We are none of us content with quietly unfolding our own individualities to the full in all directions; but have a restless craving to impress our individualities upon others, and in some way subordinate them. And this it is which determines the character of our education. Not what knowledge is of most real worth, is the consideration; but what will bring most applause, honor, respect—what will most conduce to social position and influence—what will be most imposing. As, throughout life, not what we are, but what we shall be thought, is the question; so in education, the question is, not the intrinsic value of knowledge, so much as its extrinsic effects on others. And this being our dominant idea, direct utility is scarcely more regarded than by the barbarian when filing his teeth and staining his nails.

(To be continued.)

TEACHING PUBLIC SCHOOL.

FORTY little urchins,
  Coming through the door,
Pushing, crowding, making
  A tremendous roar,
Why don't you keep quiet?
  Can't you mind the rule?
Bless me, this is pleasant,
  Teaching Public School!

Forty little pilgrims,
  On the road to fame!
If they fail to reach it,
  Who will be to blame?
High and lowly stations—
  Birds of every feather—
On a common level,
  Here are brought together.

Dirty little faces,
  Loving little hearts,
Eyes brim full of mischief,
  Skilled in all its arts.
That's a precious darling!
  What are you about?
"May I pass the water?"
  "Please, may I go out?"

Boots and shoes are scuffling,
  Slates and books are rattling,
And in the corner yonder,
  Two pugilists are battling,
Others cutting didoes—
  What a botheration!
No wonder we grow crusty,
  From *such* association!

Anxious parents drop in,
  Merely to inquire
Why *his* olive branches
  Do not shoot up higher;
Says he wants his children
  To mind their p's and q's,
And hopes their brilliant talents
  Will not be abused.

Spelling, reading, writing,
  Putting up the younger ones,
Fuming, scolding, fighting,
  Spurring on the dumb ones,
Gymnasts, vocal music!
  How the heart rejoices
When the SINGER comes to
  Cultivate the voices!

Institutes attending,
  Making our reports,
Giving Object Lessons,
  Class Drills of all sorts,
Reading dissertations,
  Feeling like a fool—
Oh, the untold blessing
  Of the Public School!

EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

IN Germany, every parish and every civil corporation is bound by law to provide sufficient schools for the elementary education of all children within its jurisdiction. The attendance of the children is secured by a system of compulsion, which, ten years ago even would have aroused within the minds of Englishmen the wonder that a nation could be induced to submit to it. But public opinion on this subject has grown with incredible speed, and the Englishman of to-day, whose recent legislation has given him a Compulsory Education Bill, will study the system of Prussia rather with interest than wonder. Just as the compulsory law of America may be traced to the strong religious feelings of the early Massachusetts settlers, so the law of Germany takes us back to the times of the Reformation. Then it was considered the duty of the Church to see that every Protestant child should be taught the duties of religion—and primary secular instruction was indissolubly linked with religious teaching—now the Church has still the same duty, but it can appeal to the civil power when its remonstrances are despised. The present law in Germany simply legalizes and enforces traditional usage—the usage is

not the creation of the law. The edict of Frederic William in 1716, which is popularly regarded as the origin of the compulsory system, merely gave legal sanction to a system which had already received the higher sanctions of religion and duty. Compulsory education has never in Germany had to struggle against an adverse public opinion, because the duty of the parent to educate his children has been admitted from the time of the birth of the reformed faith. So, too, the rites of that faith have practically fixed the superior limit of the ages between which attendance at school is to be secured. The inferior limit may vary between five in Saxony, and eight in Hamburg; but by a national custom, more potent than law, the school period ceases with confirmation and the first celebration of the Communion.

AN EMPIRE WITHOUT INHABITANTS.

THE area of the organized Territories of the United States, including Alaska, is greater than of all the States which have been admitted into the Union. There are nearly a thousand million acres of land in these Territories according to the following table:

Washington	44,796,160
New Mexico	77,568,640
Utah	54,065,043
Dakota	96,596,128
Colorado	66,880,000
Montana	92,016,640
Arizona	72,906,240
Idaho	55,288,160
Wyoming	62,645,068
Indian	44,154,240
Alaska	369,529,600

In all this vast area there are probably not over half a million of white inhabitants. In natural resources, this territorial domain is richer than all the area included in the States. The latter contain say forty million inhabitants. But here is a country waiting for forty million settlers, and even these would hardly be near enough for neighborhood purposes. Railroads will open up the country and bring in population. What a magnificent country to carve into homesteads for forty millions of landless people!

THE LOG SCHOOL-HOUSE.

LOG school-houses, like many of the relics of early civilization, are rapidly disappearing. Few of them now remain to bear witness to the intelligence and zeal in regard to public education, which characterized the early settlers, and planted the church and school-house in the foreground of every advance made in the settlement of this country. The records of several of the early States show that more than two hundred years ago provision, at the public expense, was made for the education of all classes. Though oppressed with taxation, wearied with wars, and suffering from privations incident to new and distant settlements in those days, the colonists never failed to maintain the common schools. The thirty years war in Germany broke up the system of schools founded by Luther and his successors; but the French and Indian wars, and that of the Revolution, were not allowed to interrupt the work of public education begun in this country. The general intelligence of the people was deemed an essential condition of good government, and the best guaranty of the perpetuity of free institutions.

Following the close of the war of 1812, a general revival of interest in public education was awakened. Wiser methods of instruction, supervision, and management were

made known, and public attention excited, by means of conventions, lectures, and educational journals. State and county associations have been organized; normal schools and teachers' institutes have been established; and, by legislative enactment in many States, the public schools have been made absolutely free.

This rapid march of improvement, and the steady growth of popular interest in education, have also been productive of more liberal expenditures for school-buildings and furniture. During the past year, in the State of New York alone, two and a half million of dollars were expended for school-houses and sites. The buildings, grounds and other school property of the State, are valued at more than twenty-five millions of dollars. Out of nearly twelve thousand school-houses, less than one hundred and forty are log-houses; and, at the present rate of decrease, none of these will survive the next decade.

Log school-houses no longer mark the progress of education in newly-settled States. Palatial buildings for schools, with all the modern improvements in arrangement, ventilation, and furniture, attract the attention of the traveler even in the towns of the Rocky Mountain slopes. But let us not, in the comparison, learn to despise the log school-house of the olden time, for it was a fair exponent of sincere devotion to the cause of popular education in days when a new people struggled with poverty and privations, to which we are strangers.

"All natural objects have an echo in the heart;" and, without doubt, many who view the cut at the head of this article, will be reminded of school-days spent on rude and uncomfortable benches, and of the severe district-school-master, with angular features and watchful eyes, keen to detect mischievous culprits, and ever ready with some ingenious method of penal torture, now obsolete, to deal out justice to the unlucky offender; but they will remember, too, the unaffected manners, the sincere hospitality, and honest friendships of their childhood years, and heave a sigh for the days that are no more.

IS THE HIGHER EDUCATION GROWING UNPOPULAR?

IS it true that there is of late years a relative falling off in the number of those who seek the higher education? The aggregate of students in our colleges is no doubt much greater than thirty years ago, these institutions having largely multiplied; but we greatly fear that a less proportion of young men are in the way of a thorough classical, or scientific training now than then. This opinion is confirmed by the figures which have been carefully gathered in regard to one little State—Vermont. We find them in the last annual report of the Trustees of the University of Vermont to the Legislature of that State. In 1838, when the population of the State was about 289,500, there were 280 students from Vermont in various colleges. To-day, with a population greater by more than 40,000, there are only 212 young men from Vermont in colleges and scientific schools. In 1838, the ratio of attendance in college to the whole population was 1 to 1,034. Now, the ratio is 1 to 1,557. In the past thirty-two years Vermont has increased 14 per cent. in population, but there has been a decrease in the actual number of students in the higher schools, of more than 24 per cent.; or, taking the gain in population into the account, the relative decrease has been 33.7 per cent.; that is, only two boys go to college where formerly there were three. To keep the proportion good, the college catalogues should show a total of 320 students from the Green Mountain State.

These figures are certainly suggestive, if not startling. We cannot imagine that they reveal a state of things peculiar to Vermont. It is likely—it is almost certain, that a similar change has taken place through a large part of the country. To what causes shall we ascribe this backward movement? The document referred to names as the most important cause, the growth of the mercantile spirit, consequent upon "our close connection by railroad and telegraph with our great cities." The stir and excitement of our great commercial centres is felt in the most secluded communities, and diverts our young men, while just at what should be the

outset of their educational training, "from the paths of quiet study to the exciting scenes of metropolitan life." They plunge prematurely into the whirl and struggle of business, and both the young men and the nation are losers for this failure to secure at the start a solid, thorough education. We do not insist that all should undergo the discipline of a classical course; our scientific schools are ready to receive all who prefer the so-called "practical" branches. A second cause worth citing, though not hinted at in the Report, is the gradual change which has been working in the character of our population. In some of the Eastern States especially, the original stock is yielding place to the foreign-born and his descendants. These new-comers do not as yet, save in exceptional cases, put themselves in the way of advanced culture; while their numbers are certainly to be taken into the reckoning, in estimating the proportional falling off in the number of college students.

If we do not mistake, this same tendency to short courses and superficialness shows itself also at the secondary schools. It has long seemed to us that the average age and average attainments of pupils in our schools of academic rank, were noticeably lower than twenty years ago. The grade of studies, too, in schools within our knowledge, has dropped from one to two years within the same period. In mathematics, for instance, classes used to be occupied with navigation and the calculus, where now they never pass beyond geometry. The commercial "colleges," that within a decade have sprang up on every hand like mushrooms, are, in part at least, the outgrowth of the almost universal determination of our young men to make a "short cut" into business and practical life.

And these changes are more to be lamented, when we regard them as symptoms of a general movement in American society, of which we see another indication in the substitution of *Ledgers* and dime novels and periodical trash of all sorts, for "books that are books." It is not impertinent to commend to our young people in all conditions and callings the maxim of John Milton, who "cared not how late he came into life, only that he came fit." It is certainly worth thinking on, even for a business man.

"THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI."

WE are happy to announce that our translator's work on Carl Gutzkow's new novel—the "Sons of Pestalozzi"—is nearly done. We expect to publish the first part in our next Monthly.

Gutzkow is undoubtedly the greatest living novelist of the Germans. He was born in Berlin, March 17th, 1811. His youth fell in that period in which the German literature began its crusade against the political and social reaction which was then oppressing liberty in every sphere. He was one of the founders of that school of literature which was called "Young Germany." He published his first novel, "Wally," in 1835. It created an unprecedented excitement, and was the forerunner of that which inaugurated a merciless warfare against the old political and social despotisms. This novel was followed by a series of dramatic works of the same tendency, as Nero, Saul, Richard Savage, Patkul, Zopf und Schwert, the Prototype of Tartuffe, Uriel Acosta. Some of these works stand foremost in modern dramatic literature. His greatest work of fiction is "Der Ritter vom Geiste," first published in 1850. It marks an epoch in his literary development. In it he first took the stand-point of mediation. While his former writings exhibit him the violent partisan, in this work he appears far above the party struggles of his time. And this position he has maintained in his latest work, "The Sons of Pestalozzi." Its scope is a thorough and comprehensive discussion of all the different systems of education which are stirring the spirits of our time. All these discussions are closely and intimately connected with real life. A story of the most thrilling interest, narrated with the tongue of genius, forms the basis of his educational subject. We see the educational problems of the day in their own living workings, and so interwoven with the narrative that our interest is always kept in intense suspense.

Late European events naturally interest us in examining into the causes of the catastrophe now developing. Gutzkow's novel will be a key to this great question. When we

consider the wonderful educational activity which has been alive in Germany for the last thirty years, and compare with it the torpor of French affairs, we shall cease to wonder at the sudden and fearful collapse of that proud nation.

We can promise our readers an unusual treat in our translation of this remarkable work. We know that a general interest in the subject will be awakened.

SOMETHING ABOUT INK.

PROFESSOR DARBY says that ink stands pre-eminent among the useful articles. It is practically the agent of civilization and human progress. By it the records of human history are transmitted. The thoughts of one age are handed down to succeeding ages, and the triumphs of mind in revealing the laws of the physical, intellectual and moral world are made in the possession of coming periods. The poet and the philosopher transmit to posterity their inspirations and reasonings. There was a time in the world's history when writing was unknown, and those periods, as to the thoughts and doings of those living in them, are to succeeding ages as though they had not been. Records on stone by the chisel or the inscriptions on barks by the stylus are too limited in their application to be of much interest to successors.

That writing by inks was of very ancient date there is no doubt, although the precise time cannot probably be determined. Dioscorides gives the composition of ink used in his time, it being three parts of lampblack and one of gum. Cicero and Pliny mention that ink was made from the dark-colored liquid found in the cuttle fish (*Sepia Officinalis*) which, when dried, forms the *sepia* of painters.

The ink used by the ancients seems to have been much more durable than that used in modern times. It is said that manuscripts of ancients are in much better state of preservation than those immediately preceding the invention of

printing. The reason of this is, undoubtedly, due to the fact that the basis of their ink was carbon, whereas modern inks are usually a compound containing a complex vegetable substance. We may define ink to be a fluid employed in writing with a pen. A perfect ink would be one that flows freely from the pen, is of a deep color, and will not change by age, and cannot be removed. Many efforts have been made to fulfill these conditions, but complete success has not yet been obtained.

HOW MARBLES ARE MADE.

THE chief place of the manufacture of marbles—those little pieces of stone which contribute so largely to the enjoyment of "Young America"—is at Oberstein, on the Nahe, in Germany, where there are large agate mills and quarries, the refuse of which is carefully turned to good paying account, by being made into small balls employed by experts to knuckle with, and are mostly sent to the American market. The substance used in Saxony is a hard calcarious stone, which is first broken into blocks, nearly square, by blows with a hammer. These are thrown by the one hundred or two hundred into a small sort of mill, which is formed of a flat, stationary slab of stone, with a number of concentric furrows upon its face. A block of oak, or other hard wood, of the same diametric size is placed over the stones and partially resting upon them. The small block of wood is kept revolving while the water flows upon the stone slab. In about fifteen minutes the stones are turned to spheres, and then, being fit for sale, are henceforth called marbles. One establishment, containing only three of these mills, will turn out fully sixty thousand marbles in each week. Agates are made into marbles at Oberstein by first chipping the pieces neatly round with a hammer, handled by a skillful workman, and then wearing down the edges upon the surface of a large grindstone.

OF WHAT SPONGES CONSIST.

THE common washing sponge is still considered by many naturalists as a vegetable species, and in fact most people look upon it as of vegetable growth. Still, it seems now to be definitively established that it belongs to those low forms of animalculæ that are comprised under the term zoöphytes. "Will you make us believe," here you exclaim, "that this fibrous network, in which one is unable to detect the least indication of any thing that reminds us of animal life, is not a moss or something like it?" Exactly so. However, the sponge which you use daily in your ablutions, and which forms one of the most indispensable articles of the toilet, is not the animal as it lives and thrives, but only its horny substance, its skeleton, if you like to call it so. When cut loose from the submarine rocks on which it is found at considerable depth, the sponge presents itself to you as a black, jelly-like mass, which, when left in the air for only a few days, will give off a most disagreeable smell, originating from the gelatinous part in question. In the natural sponge, you have not one single individual before you, but a regular colony of animalculæ. The elastic, horn-like network of your toilet-table is then impregnated to its innermost parts with a slimy substance that is penetrated throughout by fine capillary tubes, not visible to the naked eye. Upon examining this curious being further, exceedingly fine cilia (eye-lashes) will be discovered. They project around the entrances of the pores, and by their motion produce a current which, in passing through the numberless tubes, leaves behind whatever they may need as food. The horny network is probably only their secretion, like the house of a snail. But that the sponge is of animal origin is proven by the discovery of spermatozoa and embryos in the interior, as well as by the composition of the fibrous elastic part itself, which contains one of the constituents of silk and the spider's web.

In order to prepare it for use, it is first left in the air for a short time, until the gelatinous part is decomposed, then the mass is washed into hot water, and afterward in a bath

of dilute muriactic acid. The toilet sponges are bleached by means of chlorine and hyposulphite of soda. The so-called wax sponges, that are used by doctors for dressing ulcers, are purified sponges dipped into fluid wax, and then pressed between hot plates.

The French and Austrian governments have lately commenced to rear sponges artificially—the former on the shores of the Mediterranean, the latter on the coast of Dalmatia. The cultivation is said to be perfectly successful, and to yield large profits.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

EDUCATION AMONG THE INDIANS.—The report of the Commissioner of Education will show some very interesting facts in relation to the efforts of the government to educate the Indians. The amount appropriated by the last Congress, specifically for the education of Indians by tribes, was one hundred and sixteen thousand dollars; and an additional sum of one hundred thousand dollars was appropriated to be used generally by the Secretary of the Interior. This is more than was appropriated in any one year for this purpose for half a century. The sum appropriated altogether for Indian education will amount to about eight millions of dollars, while it is estimated that about five hundred millions of dollars have been spent in fighting them. It is estimated that there are over eighty-two thousand Indian children of school age.

TEXAS.—Texas has now in prospect the largest school fund of any State in the Union. All her lands are set apart virtually as a school fund. Not an acre can be sold but that the proceeds must be applied for school purposes. One quarter of all the taxes are for the schools, and every poll tax, so that in a few years, as railroads penetrate the interior, bringing into market her millions of acres of land, now almost valueless, she will have an exhaustles fund with which to build school houses, and employ teachers, and thus edu-

cate every child in the State. Education is far better than wealth. "Riches take to themselves wings and fly away," but education cannot leave us. The late Legislature still further argumented the school fund, and otherwise provided for education, and we are in hopes that nothing will be wanting to establish and maintain a perfect and wholesome system of public free schools, at which all shall be educated.

CHICAGO, ILL.—During the year ending July 1, 1870, the whole number of children taught in the public schools, was 38,937, an increase of 4,197 over the the previous year. The average daily attendance was 24,839. The total expenses were $715,347.38, applied as follows: For salaries of teachers and superintendents, $421,113.67; for other current expenses, $137,576.16; for permanent improvements, $156,657.55. The total cost per scholar, including all expenses and six per cent. upon realization of school property was $25.22. The elaborate report shows that the common school system of education is liberally supported and vigilantly looked after in the City of Chicago.

DECATUR, ILL.—During the year ending August 1, 1870, there were enrolled in the public schools of Decatur, 1,770 pupils, of whom 888 were girls. The average number belonging was 1370, and the average daily attendance, 1290 or 94.1 per cent.; 106 pupils attended less than four weeks, and 793 attended the whole year. The number of teachers employed was 28, 25 being ladies. The total expenses were $29,309.50, of which $17,059.88 were for salaries. Based upon the average attendance, the cost per pupil for tuition alone was $13.22; including all expenses, the cost per pupil was $22.72.

TURKEY.—A new public education law has been promulgated at Constantinople. Primary instruction is made compulsory for every inhabitant of the Turkish empire. The period of instruction for girls is fixed at from six to ten, and the boys from six to eleven. The magistrates of districts and villages are to keep a register of the names of boys and girls whose age qualifies them for instruction, together with

those of their parents or guardians. If any of these do not go to school, the magistrate is to warn the parent or guardian of his obligation, and if, after such notice, the child is not sent to school within a month, and no valid reason is given for its absence; a fine of from 5 to 100 piasters is to be imposed according to the means of the parent, and the child is to be taken to school by the authorities. The primary schools are to be either Mussulman or Christian, according to the religion which is most prevalent in the district. The higher schools, however, are to receive Mussulmans and Christians indiscriminately. "An Imperial Council for Public Instruction" has been established to see to the due execution of this law.

[School Officers and friends of Education are requested to send reports and items for this department.]

CORRESPONDENCE.

LOUISVILLE, KY., *Dec.* 1870.

MR. EDITOR—In your Monthly, for November, you have an article on "Wilhelmshöhe, Napoleon's New Residence." In the last paragraph you say: "All this was built by order of Duke Carl of Hesse Cassel," etc., but you omit the most significant item, viz.: That it was built by him with the money received by him for the German hirelings (Hessians) aiding England in her attempt to subjugate *us* in the "Revolutionary war." This rather detracts from the interest of the *American* reader of your sketch.

A TEACHER.

WILL "A Teacher" be kind enough to prove the above statement, concerning the money for building "Wilhelmshöhe" anything more than a mere fable?—EDITOR.

IN Russia, the telegraph is now chiefly worked by women, and they have proved so efficient that the Minister of the Interior has laid before the Imperial Council a scheme for their further employment in the public service.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

AN ingenious friend of ours—a very model of courtesy—whose calling leads him into intimate relations with many families, lately informed us that he had discovered a way to escape, with safe conscience, from many a close corner. When confronted with the art-productions of the young ladies of a household, and challenged to criticise them, he was wont to pronounce them "remarkable." This satisfied both his moral sense and the "artist's" thirst for praise. We have been sorely tempted to imitate the ambiguous amiability of our friend, and pronounce the latest Rhetoric [1] "remarkable!" But duty to the public requires us to clear the equivocation. So we proceed to say, that the work is remarkably comprehensive, and remarkably fragmentary. And further, that its comprehensiveness consists chiefly in the inclusion of matters that properly belong somewhere else. For instance, under the head of "Style," we are treated to fifty pages on Punctuation and Capitals—matters which should have been sufficiently handled in Hart's "English Grammar"—a book which we confess we have never opened. Here, however, he enters into such minuteness of detail, that the work seems designed rather for compositors and proof-readers than "for schools and colleges." Possibly our author had in mind, as he wrote, that Southern institution which proposes to make a specialty of training editors. This impression is confirmed, when, on looking further, we find particular directions for the writing of "news" and "editorials." His specimen "Proof-Sheet," however, as finally corrected for the press, would be pretty soundly scratched by some proof-readers whom we know. Why Spelling might not as well be included under Style, as Punctuation, we fail to see.

The mere "mechanism of poetry," too, as Mr. Hart properly styles Versification, seems to us to belong elsewhere than in a School Manual of Rhetoric. The sort of poets that will be made by a conning of rules on rhyme and metre is endured by neither gods nor men. We don't think boys and girls generally had best spend much time on the dry bones of Prosody. It is hardly worth while to drill a thousand students in all the minutiæ of the prosodical art, lest perchance one of them should be inspired by Apollo, and fail to find melodious vent for his fine frenzies.

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1 A MANUAL OF COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC: A Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. By JOHN S. HART, LL.D., Principal of the N. J. State Normal School. Philadelphia: Eldridge & Brother. 1871.

Under the head of Precision, we find some very just remarks in regard to synonyme; but we confess ourselves a little puzzled by these two statements: "Few words in any language are exactly synonymous." "*For the same idea we have, in thousands of instances*, one word from the Saxon, another from the Latin, and sometimes still a third from the Greek" [p. 79]. And again, on p. 363—"*For the same idea, in almost numberless instances*, we have two, and sometimes even three terms, *exactly equivalent*." We take it that the first statement is nearest the truth.

For the placing of Style before Invention, we can see some reasons; but we fail to divine why "Abstract Subjects" are assigned to pupils in composition before "Imaginary Subjects" and "Personal Narrations," or why "Descriptions" should be placed last of all [except "Miscellaneous"], as presenting peculiar difficulties. It is common, we admit, for children to write on Fear, Hatred, Friendship and the like, but the instructor who assigns such topics is not to be commended. As models for imitation, we are presented with essays by authors of nine, ten, and twelve years of age—with their spelling and punctuation corrected, we presume.

In special works upon Language, we, half-unconsciously, notice little peculiarities of style which elsewhere would not arrest attention. Hence the checks in the margin of our copy, opposite such sentences as these:

Whatever may be weighed has *a* weight [p. 80]. A sentence is such an assemblage of words as will make *a* complete sense [p. 87].

There may be a conjunction between *each two* of the words [p. 27].

A Fiction is a story made up of *facts invented* for the purpose [p. 286].

The diæresis [¨] is called a mark of quantity [p. 57], though we are not told whether it means *long* or *short*, or a little of both. Jefferson's word, *belittling*, occurs twice on page 193, maugre Campbell's rules, as given on page 72. *Caption* is given a synonym of *sub-head* [p. 58]; as if *caput* were supposed to be its etymon. Some quite judicious remarks are made on the use of *only*; yet, on page 81, we are told that "'Virtue only makes us happy,' means that nothing else can do it," which certainly it does, in case the rhetorical pause is bestowed after *only*.

But enough of this small criticism. We have said that the work is remarkably fragmentary. This is the quality in it which first strikes one. It is a collection of scraps on whatever relates, even remotely, to the subject in hand. These scraps are arranged after a certain method, but the

book is not *organized.* Its unity is that of sticks in a wood pile. It is couched in brief paragraphs, each with a separate "caption"—very much after the style lately so common in the newspapers; and could not but tend insensibly to produce a like broken, disjointed style in students who make use of it. We cannot exhibit this fragmentary character of the work, without quoting to an extent which our space will not allow. We must, however, show how the sub-heads are used, as this will indicate what we would call the *organization* of the treatise. Under the heading "Power," a sub-head under "Sublimity," we have these "captions": *A Locomotive, Steam-Hammers, Natural Objects, War-Horse.* Under "Humor," we find: *Incongruity, Surprise, Contempt, Characteristic, Kindly, Humorists, Kind-hearted, Continuance.*

We have heard numerous inquiries of late for a *good* School Rhetoric, and had hope that this Manual would supply the acknowledged want; but we must say that this is not the book we were looking for. The publishers' part, however, is well done. Paper and print are excellent.

THE most pretentious book-title that we have seen for many a day is the following:—

"A Complete Etymology of the English Language: containing the Anglo-saxon, French, Dutch, German, Welsh, Danish, Gothic, Swedish, Gælic, Italian, Latin and Greek Roots, and the English words derived therefrom, accurately spelled, accented and defined. By Wm. W. Smith." (2)

A book so copious as to contain a "complete" exposition of the English words derived from the twelve languages mentioned, will be welcomed by every member of the Philological Association. In the first sentence it is asserted that ALL previous Etymologies of English were confined to words "merely" derived from the Latin and Greek—overlooking Knighton's book of 1852 (which has 178 Anglo-saxon heads), and Haldeman's Affixes of 1865, where English words are analysed from many languages.

In the succession of the twelve languages given, a singular want of discrimination appears, for allied tongues like Anglo-saxon and Dutch, are separated by French, which is far removed from Italian; Welsh is interposed between German and Danish; and Danish, Gothic and Swedish are between Welsh and Gælic, which should stand side by side.

Etymology is a science—spelling is conventional, and

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2 New York: Published by A. S. BARNES & Co.

'brick' or 'brique,' whether spelled in the English or the French mode, has its proper origin. Rules of spelling therefore have no place in etymology—a science which is as definite in Comanche as in written language. Yet here we are told when *i* or *y*, *c* or *k* are to be used; we are treated to fifteen pages of words of similar pronunciation (with definitions, commencing with ABEL, *n.* A man's name. ABLE, *a.* Strong; skilful.) and containing arraign, arrange; austere, oyster; castile, cast-steel; coarse, corse; crane, crayon; formally, formerly; guitar, catarrh; harsh, hash; hoarse, horse; impostor, imposture; huzza, huzzar; jester, gesture; lends, lens; line, loin; minds, mines; nave, naive; poplar, popular; satire, satyr; tenor, tenure; tense, tents; etc. According to this system of 'similar pronunciation,' sorter, *he who sorts out*,—and sorter *a sort of*—should have been included.

There are no introductory remarks or rules pertaining to the subject of the book, but we find instead, twenty-eight rules for spelling, several of which contradict the principles of etymology, as that which asserts that "*y* is changed into *e*" in beau-te-ous, when in fact, the *e* is preserved from French and old English, and is older than the *y* of *beauty*.

The book, as a work on etymology, begins with Part Second, on page 45, and with the "Prefixes of Saxon or English Origin." Here A of a-far is made prefix of adverbs only, and the meaning given will not apply to a-loud and a-shamed.

Be-calm *to make* calm, but the only meaning, *to make* will not explain be-set, be-siege, be-head, be-take, be-think. The prefix of en-danger, em-bellish has no right here because it is strictly French; and in impoverish it is Latin. There is no such prefix as *cog* for *con*—no such etymologic form as cog-nate, this word being co-gnate, or, as given by Haldeman—co-gn-ate. If the prefix were *con* the word should be *connate* according to Mr. Smith's Rule XXV, and being *con* it could not become *cog* under any law known to Mr. Smith, and had he been accustomed to judge of words by the laws of speech instead of the vagaries of spelling he would have sought for the cause of this *y*. But the mere compiler does not care to account for the different parts of his illustrative words, and he fails to analyze his own examples. On page 45, *beau* is made the root of embellish, but he does not explain how the *ll* has come in; on page 192 *apprehend* is under 'apprendre' which cannot give *h*, and on page 193, *blank* is put under 'blan chir,' and *whisk* under 'whisch,' which cannot yield *a k*, and *beauty* has no explanation of the suffix. This applies to *athlete*, *asterisk*, and others.

The Saxon prefixes are followed by the Latin prefixes, these by the suffixes, which, notwithstanding their extent and importance, are not distributed according to language, and these are followed by the Greek prefixes. On page 61 the suffixes are in four languages without any indication of what they are.

No one with any idea of method could have separated the various languages as Mr. Smith has done, and his inability to distribute his words is proof of the assertion. Under Anglo-saxon we find *devil*, *age*, *gas*, *allow*, which belong to other places; *asp* and *magnes* are made Latin instead of Greek; and *polite*, *polish*, are made Greek instead of Latin and French, and French *brave* is made German; and on page 222 it is pretended that there is an Italian word *punchinello*. Father is on page 106, *paternal* and *patriarch* on both page 271 and 318, and Father is given the false meaning of begetter, on no competent authority. So the cognate words *kin*, *genus*, and *genesis*, which should stand side by side, are placed far apart as if they were not from the same root. The suffix of *gender* is not given, and if it is guessed to be *er*, it is said to mean "*one who* or *the person that*." *Chaos* does not mean '*confusion*' but is a cognate of *chasm* as given by Haldeman, pages 184, 250.

As used here, the many languages paraded in the title are a delusion, and the best pupils will fail in referring English words to them. *Bark* (of a tree) is made Danish—it might have been referred to Swedish or English itself.

Anglo-saxon is worthless, because made up of English words sometimes spelled differently, as 'box' *box*, 'botm' *bottom*, 'blind' *blind*, 'bolt' *bolt* (p. 54) which is not etymology —but if *bolt* had been placed under 'Boleo' *to shoot*, *to throw*, (on p. 306), spelled *bol-t* and defined by *something shot* or *thrown*, a reason for the form of the word would be given.

Mr. Smith was evidently out of his depths in Gælic, for after having given examples in alphabetic order, under A B C and D, p 229, he sinks and does not rise again—and his first example (Apron) is erroneously passed from English into Gælic, and not from Gælic into English. His idea of "roots" may be judged from the fact that on p. 231 he makes *three* where Haldeman (p. 249) makes *one*. Of these, one is accented *Ac'idius* and another *A'cur-o*, although the *a* is short in both, and between accent and hyphen, the roots seem different. He accents *Cop'ula* and *Ge'ro* (instead of *co'pula* and *ger'o*), thus indicating false roots and false quantities, or the accented vowel of the former is long, and of the latter short.

The basis for the linguistic ostentation may be judged

from the fact that of the *twelve* languages displayed on the title, *six* are restricted to about seven pages, and the important Gothic has but *nine words*, two of which are not in Diefenbach. Of Swedish, *six* "roots" are given; and of Gælic and of Italian, *nine* each. But roots are not really given, the great mass of the originals given being complete words, often of several syllables, like *accoutre*, *balustre*, *blaspheme*, etc. Thus '*adjourn*' is referred to the "root" *adjourner* on p. 191; 'journal' to another "root" *jour* on p. 200; and 'diurnal' to a third, *dies* on p. 244, when 'journal' is only 'diurnal' pronounced in two syllables.

The author of "THE LITTLE SPELLER," and other juvenilities, should not have ventured out of his earlier sphere before learning that the science of etymology and the art of spelling have not as much in common as he seems to suppose.

SCOTT'S new History [3] claims the attention of teachers for these among other features: the narrative is perspective, and often animated, and the style generally such as pupils may safely imitate. The numerous maps and plans furnish the student with that constant and close reference to geography which he needs for a proper understanding of the progress and connection of events. The pronunciation of all difficult proper names is indicated; recognizable likenesses of most of the chief personages named are given, with other illustrations to help the imagination of the young reader; the "General Reflections," interspersed here and there, are a good device for exhibiting the general movement of affairs during a period, with glances at their causes and results; and the full chronological table will be found useful for reference as well as for purposes of examination. As for the questions at the foot of the page, they may help the young student to ascertain whether he has mastered his lesson; but we do not imagine that any really competent teacher will ever look at them when conducting a recitation. The book bears proof throughout its pages that its author has gleaned some of its incidents and allusions from a pretty wide range of historical reading; at least, we so account for the very agreeable freshness with which certain usually barren facts are here invested. In no similar compend have we seen an equally satisfactory recital of the events of the Slaveholders' Rebellion. The narrative is not so extremely concise as to have the dryness (without the facility of reference) of a mere chronological summary. And this leads us

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3 A SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By DAVID B. SCOTT. New York: Harper & Brothers.

to notice what, to some, will be an objection to the work as a school manual—its comparative fullness. For ourselves, we must be allowed to doubt the desirableness of very brief compends, even for class use. Some compilers give us the very bones of history, without succulence and without connection; a system than which, to our thinking, there is only one worse—that, namely, of disjointed question and answer, of which Chambers' "Historical Questions" will serve as an example. It is infinitely better that the man, or the boy, should get a connected, intelligible view of the history of a single country, or even of that country for but a single eventful era, than that he should register in his memory the geneologies of all the kings that ever reigned, and the dates of all their battles. But such a register of mere facts and dates is a treacherous record at best. It is apt to lose the names and figures intrusted to it. The dry skeleton of history needs to be clothed upon with the flesh and blood of social and national life; else it cannot be retained by the mind, or contribute anything to its growth and vigor. Mere skeletons are useful, if only they can be filled out, and made to look like life; but we question their general utility as employed in schools. They are too much like the first rude outline of the painter—meaningless until the canvas is enlivened with figures and color and seeming motion. In many schools which we have visited, we have thought we observed a manifest distaste for this most interesting of studies; one cause of this distaste we believe we have indicated above.

Mr. Scott brings his narrative down to June, 1870. If in his next edition he will give us a full alphabetical index, he will add very materially to the value of his book.

THE Annual Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education is an interesting and instructive document, giving comprehensive Educational statistics for the nation. The Editor of the New York *Herald* attributes this able Report to "Commissioner Barnard," and calls him "one of the most competent living writers on the subject of Education." Our worthy friend, Dr. Barnard, will be somewhat surprised to learn that he is yet the "Commissioner;" for doubtless he fully believes that important post to have been occupied, for sometime, by General —— Eaton. And the friends of Dr. Barnard will be no less surprised to learn that he (Dr. B.) is "one of the most competent living writers." Dr. Barnard has proved himself most competent in reprinting ponderous pamphlets and reports on all sorts of subjects allied to Education; but, the proofs that he is a "most competent living writer" are perhaps not so very easy to produce.

MESSRS. WILSON, HINKLE & CO., Cincinnati, have begun the publication of "Thompson & Bowler's Eclectic System of Penmanship." The specimens before us are good.

MESSRS. CHARLES C. CHATFIELD & CO., New Haven, have published "No. 4 of the University Series of Pamphlets." The subject is, "Hypothesis of Evolution; physical and metaphysical, by Prof. Edward D. Cope." 72 pages. Price, 25 cts.

MESSRS. D. APPLETON & CO. have sent us "Dr. John W. Hoyt's address on University Progress," delivered before the National Teachers' Association, at Trenton, in 1869.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have recently published "My Apingi Kingdom, with Life in the Great Sahara, and Sketches of the Chase of the Ostrich and Hyena, by Paul Du Chaillu." It has numerous and excellent engravings. They have added three volumes to their "Library of Select Novels: In Duty Bound; From Thistles—Grapes? and the Warden and Barchester Towers."

MESSRS. DODD & MEAD have added to their list of books for the young, "Geoffrey the Lollard, by Frances Eastwood." Illustrated. 342 pages. Price, $1.50.

MESSRS. CHARLES SCRIBNER & CO. have added two volumes to their "Illustrated Library of Wonders: Wonders of Bodily Strength and Skill, and Wonderful Balloon Ascents." These volumes are fully illustrated. Price, $1.50.

MESSRS. HURD & HOUGHTON have published "a unique chapter in history"—"The Children's Crusade, an episode of the Thirteenth Century, by George Zabriskie Gray." 238 pages. Price, $1.75.

MESSRS. J. C. GARRIGUES & CO., Philadelphia, have published "The Sunday-School Idea: an exposition of the principles which underlie the Sunday-School Cause, setting forth its objects, organization, methods and capabilities, by John S. Hart, LL.D." 414 pages.

MR. JOHN H. DINGMAN, New York, has made and published an excellent "Dictionary of Booksellers, Stationers, News-dealers, and Music-dealers," to which he has added "A list of the Libraries of the United States and Canada."

THE MISSISSIPPI EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL is announced to appear early in 1871. "The Wisconsin Journal of Education" is to be revived. "The Connecticut School Journal" is to be published again. We are glad to learn of the establishment of NEW Educational Journals, and to note the revival of those which have been suspended. Long may they live.

BOOKS EXPECTED.—J. W. SCHERMERHORN & CO. will publish within a few months, "Vol. I. of the American Educational Annual." It will present a General Review of the Condition, Progress and Prospects of Education in the United States and throughout the

world; and, in addition to critical, descriptive, and historical articles on many subjects of interest, will contain many Statistical Tables. It is prepared to meet an increasing demand for information respecting the condition of education, and will supply what has long been needed—a Complete and reliable Year Book of Educational Statistics.

It is proposed to issue a century book in honor of the approaching centennial of the Declaration of Independence.——Mr. James F. Fields is preparing a series of papers, giving reminiscences of distinguished English and American Authors.——Prof. John Fiske, of Harvard College, the Positivist, is preparing a work on "Fables and Superstitions."——Admiral Porter is said to be preparing a history of the American navy.——Rev. Dr. Rufus Anderson is engaged in writing a "History of the Sandwich Islands."——A translation of the Iliad, by Mr. J. G. Cordery, of the Bengal Civil service, is announced. ——Prof. Maguire, of Galway, has a volume on the "Platonic Ethics" in the press.——A translation of Louis Napoleon's military writings has been published in Germany.

COLLEGE CATALOGUES RECEIVED.

Indiana Asbury University, Greencastle, Ind., Rev. Thos. Bowman, A. M., D.D., President. The Faculty consists of nine members, of whom four are graduates of the University. The total number of graduates is three hundred and ninety-nine. The Institution has an endowment fund of about $100,000.

Kentucky University, Lexington, Ky. The University embraces several Colleges, each under the immediate government of its own Faculty, the whole being under the general supervision of the Regent, John B. Bowman, A.M. In all the departments thirty instructors are employed. The whole number of students is seven hundred and seventy-two.

Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa, Rev. James Black, D.D., President, has twenty-seven instructors, and a total of four hundred and thirty-four students in attendance.

Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., Rev. Cyrus Nutt, D.D., reports a faculty of fifteen, and two hundred and seventy-nine students in the several departments.

Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tenn., Rev. B. W. McDonnold, D.D., LL.D., President. The number of instructors is eleven; total number of students four hundred and one, of whom one hundred and thirty-eight are in the Preparatory School, and seventy-three in the Theological Department.

McGee College, College Mound, Mo., Rev. J. B. Mitchell, D.D., President, has eleven instructors, and two hundred and sixty-five students, ninety-three of whom are in the Female Department.

William Jewell College, Liberty, Mo., Rev. Thos. Rambaut, LL.D., President. Six instructors and one hundred and twenty-seven students are reported. The college is under the control of the Baptists; has an endowment of $125,000, and a good library.

Woman's Medical College, of the N. Y. Infirmary. The graduating class of 1870 consisted of five ladies; the number of students is twenty-six. Dr. Emily Blackwell, 128 Second Avenue, N. Y. City, is Secretary of the Faculty.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, St. Anthony, Minn., W. W. Folwell, M.A., President, has a Faculty of twelve. Three departments are now in active operation, viz.: Department of Elementary Ins., College of Science, Literature and the Arts, College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts. The departments of Law and Medicine will be put in operation so soon as the means of the University will permit.

COLLEGE OF DENTISTRY, N. Y. City. The Fifth Annual Announcement shows that this College, established for the purpose of educating men for the surgical specialty of Dentistry, has a Faculty of eight members. The number of graduates, class of 1870, was seven, upon whom the degree of D. D. S. was conferred.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Emporia, Kansas, L. B. Kellogg, Principal, is attended by two hundred and forty pupils, one hundred and thirty-one of whom are females. There are six instructors.

☞ College Officers are requested to send to the Editor their Catalogues as soon as issued.

SCIENTIFIC.

THE rise of sap in trees and plants has been explained on the principle of capillary attraction, but M. Becquerel considers that electricity is an acting cause. A capillary tube that will not allow water to pass through it, does so at once on being electrified, and he considers that electro-capillarity is the efficient cause of sap traveling in vegetable life.

THE MOUTHS OF PLANTS.—The root constitutes the plant's mouth. It terminates in a little sponge. The sponge drinks up the moisture from the surrounding earth. Every boy has seen in the woods the roots of some trees, planted by the birds or the winds in the crevice of a rock, wandering down the sides of the great boulder in search of nourishment. Dr. Davy tells of a case in which a horse-chesnut growing on a flat stone sent out its roots to forage for food. They passed seven feet up a contiguous wall, turned at the top, and passed down seven feet on the other side, found nourishment there, which their own barren home denied them. Thus closely does the instinct of vegetation imitate the wisdom of the animated creation. In another instance narrated by Malherbe, an acacia threw its roots across a hollow of sixty-six feet, to find its labors rewarded by the discovery of a well of water, into which they plunged, and from which they drew the food so much needed. What strange sense drew them toward the water rather than toward the rock or the sand?

WE may state on the authority of Nature, that benzol has been applied to a somewhat novel purpose. If poured on a piece of ordinary paper, immediate transparency is produced, to such an extent as to enable one to dispense entirely with tracing paper. On exposure to air, or better, a gentle heat, the liquid is entirely dissipated, the

MISCELLANEA.

PROF. M. P. CAVERT, formerly in the State Department of Public Instruction, Albany, N, Y., has become Superintendent of Public Schools in Pekin, Illinois.

PROF. E. A. CHARLTON, late of Auburn, N. Y., is Principal of the Normal School at Plattville, Wisconsin.

STATISTICS recently compiled by President Barnard, of Columbia College, New York, show that, whereas in 1838 there was one college student to every thirteen of the population, in 1869 there was only one in nineteen. This was in New England alone. Out of New England, the ratio of college graduates fell, during the same interval, from one out of every sixty-seven capable of receiving a collegiate education, to one out of every seventy-seven.

As a matter of general interest, we cite from the Report alluded to in our article on HIGHER EDUCATION, the distribution of the 212 students from Vermont: "Dartmouth, 70; University of Vermont, 51; Middlebury, 38; Amherst, 10; Madison, (N. Y.) 7; Wesleyan, 6; Tufts, 6; Williams, 5; Harvard, 4; Oberlin, 4; Brown, 3; Yale, 2; Union, 1; Rochester, 1; Marietta, 1; Monmouth, (Ill.) 1; Lombard, (Ill.) 1; Ripon, (Wis.) 1."

A PROFESSOR of a celebrated college asked the question: "Can a man see without eyes?" "Yes, sir," was the prompt reply. "How, sir," cried the astonished professor, "can a man see without eyes? Pray, sir, how do you make that out?" "He can see with one, sir," replied the ready-witted youth.

A TEACHER of vocal music asked an old lady if her grandson had an ear for music?

"Wa'al," said the old lady, "I really don't know. Won't you take the candle and see?"

HERE is a Boston boy's composition on "The Horse:" "The horse is the most useful animal in the World. So is the Cow. I once had thirteen Ducks and two was drakes and a Skunk killed One. he smelt Orful. I knew a Boy which had 7 chickens but His father would not let him rais Them and so he got mad and so he boared a Hole in his mothers Wash tub. I wish I Had a horse—a horse weighs 1000 pounds."

ELECTROPHOTOMICOGRAPHY means the art of photographing objects as magnified by the microscope by the help of

AN OLD SCHOLAR.

"There is a negro school at Meherrin Station, on the Richmond and Danville Railroad, where the teachers receive scholars of all ages and both sexes. Mr. Arvine, of Lunenberg, had an old cook, seventy-one years of age, who took it into her head to learn to speak and write the English language; so she entered the school, and bringing her ten cents per day and regularly paying it over to the teachers, she got along very well until, perhaps, at the end of the second week, she missed her lesson, and *was kept in at play-time!*"—(HARPER'S WEEKLY.)

SMILE WHENEVER YOU CAN.

Words, Anonymous. [T.]

1. When things don't go to suit you, And the world seems up-side down, Don't
2. Why should you dread to - mor-row, And thus to spoil to - day? For

waste your time in fret-ting, But drive a-way that frown; Since
when you bor-row trou-ble, You al-ways have to pay. It

life is oft per-plex-ing, It's much the wis-est plan
is a good old max-im, Which should be oft-en preached—

To bear all tri-als brave-ly, And smile when-e'er you can.
Don't cross the bridge be-fore you, Un-til the bridge is reached.

3 You might be spared much sighing,
If you would keep in mind
The thought that good and evil
Are always here combined.
There must be something wanting,
And though you roll in wealth,
You may miss from your casket
That precious jewel—health.

4 And though you're strong and sturdy,
You may have an empty purse;
(And earth has many trials
Which I consider worse!)
But whether joy or sorrow
Fill up your mortal span,
'Twill make your pathway brighter
To smile whene'er you can.

From "THE NORMAL DIADEM," now in preparation, by Professor William Tillinghast, author of "The Diadem of School Songs."

OUR

Assembly Room Desks and Settees.

PATENTS APPLIED FOR.

It is often absolutely necessary that the School Room be used for a general Assembly room for Pupils, for Sunday School, for Public Lectures, and for other Assembly purposes. Hence Furniture which will permit **the School Room to be readily transformed into an Assembly room,** has long been desired. Inventors in this Country and in Great Britain have tried their skill; but with clumsy and expensive results. The achievement illustrated in the above cut is a most decided success.

THIS FURNITURE LEAVES NOTHING UNPROVIDED.

Economy of cost and space; strength and simplicity of construction; ease and rapidity of transforming a School room full of Desks into an

ASSEMBLY ROOM OF SETTEES:

all has been considered and perfectly accomplished. With this Furniture it is no hardship for the School Room to serve the double purpose of School and Public Hall.

The Cut so well shows the construction that detailed description seems unnecessary here. When Desk and Seat are both folded, less than one foot of space is occupied.

The *folding Seat*, (Allen's Patent,) with the *Comfortable Curves* of both back and seat, which have made the **New American School Desks and Settees** so widely famous, do good service in this style.

There are five sizes: Primary, Intermediate, Grammar, High School and Academic.

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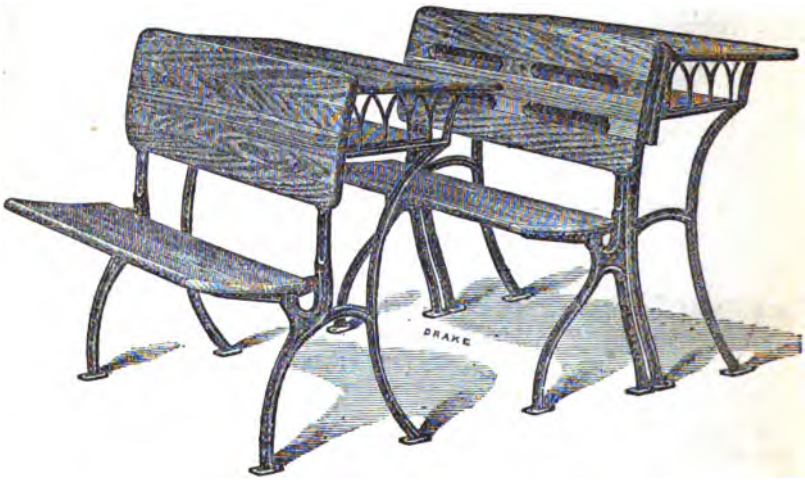
SCHOOL DESKS AND SETTEES.

(Munger's Patents, with Allen's Opera Seat Patent.)



Desk and Settee Combined. **Desk and Settee, Independent.**

THESE Desks and Settees have more points of real merit than any other School Furniture now made.

(1) **They are constructed on strict physiological principles.** The seats and backs are **curved to precisely fit** the persons of pupils—hence **they are most comfortable.**

(2) **The Seats are folding**—permitting pupils **to take and leave their places without difficulty and disturbance**; enabling the teacher **to call up every pupil promptly,** at a given signal; giving **capacity** to the School-room for **light Gymnastics**; admitting **free passages** across the room, and giving opportunity **to clean the floors.**

(3) They are **readily taken apart,** and shipped flat—hence **transportation is very cheap.**

(4) The patented manner of dove-tailing the parts makes **warping, shrinking, and swelling** impossible,—hence they are **enduring.**

(5) They are **superior in appearance,** and finished in workmanship.

(6) And are **cheaper even than most inferior styles.**

Seven sizes: Children's, Small Primary, Primary, Intermediate, Grammar, High School, Academic.

THE NEW SCHOOL GLOBE.

PROBABLY the principal reason why so few of our Schools are supplied with a Globe is that there has been no **good Globe** to be obtained at **a moderate price.**

Our New five-inch Terrestrial Globe will precisely supply this want. The Map is **new**—clearly and finely engraved—prepared expressly for taking the place of the large and expensive globes. The "Grand Divisions" are boldly colored. The water is white, distinctly showing the principal Islands, Peninsulas, Capes, Gulfs, Bays, etc., etc.

It is mounted in a light and durable manner, strong brass mountings, inclined axis, on a neat black walnut stand.

Securely packed in box with Sliding Cover..... **Price $2.25**

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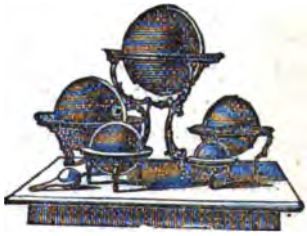

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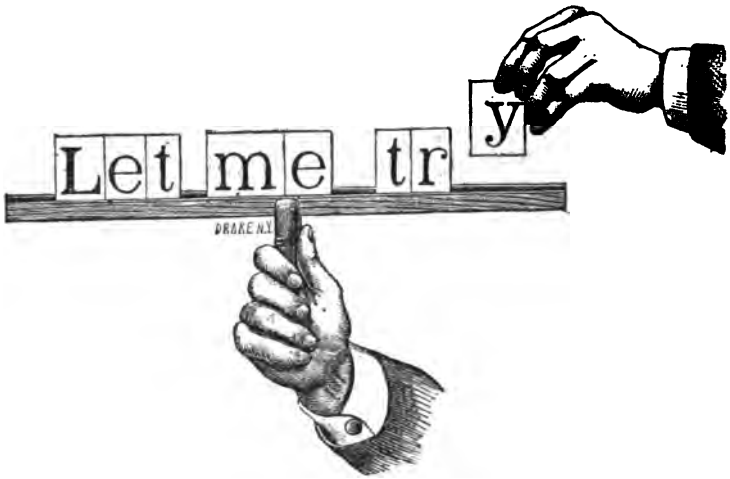

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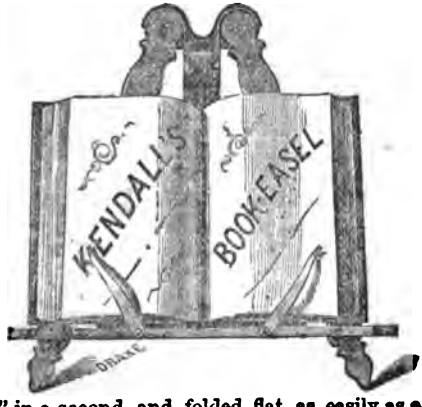

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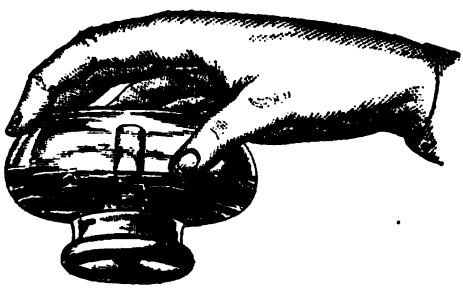

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February, 1871.

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AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

FEBRUARY, 1871.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART SIXTH.

"Sith the Holy Scripture hath whole parts in it poeticall, and that even our Saviour Christ vouchsafed to use the flowers of it, I think the laurell crowne appointed for tryumphing captaines doth worthilie honor the Poets tryumph." SIDNEY.

THE ITALIAN INFLUENCE, 1558–1649.

WE consider the English language and literature to have now arrived at the beginning of the period of Maturity. The year 1558 is taken as a convenient one to mark the division, as it also marks the accession of a new Queen, who was proclaimed on the seventeenth of November, amid so much popular rejoicing, that for many years it was annually celebrated as "Queen's Day." The princess Elizabeth had been the year before described in the following terms: "The princess is as beautiful in mind as she is in body; though her countenance is rather pleasing from its expression, than beautiful. She is large and well made; her complexion clear and of an olive tint, her eyes are fine, and her hands, on which she prides herself, small and delicate. She has an excellent genius, with much address and

self-command, as was abundantly shown in the severe trials to which she was exposed in the earlier parts of her life. In her temper she is haughty and imperious, qualities inherited from her father, King Henry VIII., who, from her resemblance to himself, is said to have regarded her with peculiar fondness."

The joy that expressed itself at the opening of Elizabeth's reign was a fitting precursor of the progress which followed. For fifty years the nation had been in a state of stagnation, but then a new life burst forth, at which we can now only hint. It was a time of agitation, of the throwing off of material and intellectual fetters. We have called it the period of the Italian Influence.

We must not forget at any stage of our study the relation that national literatures have to one another—a relation very apparent in the history of England and which English literature constantly exemplifies.

The first influence upon our literature in its mature period was exerted by Italy, and it was felt for a hundred years. By saying this I do not wish to be understood to say that the impetus given to the writers of this period by Italian letters has ever ceased to be felt. It is felt to-day, and will be felt so long as Sidney is known as the apologist for poetry,—so long as Spenser's rich verse is remembered—so long as Shakespeare and the Bible strengthen the English mind and soul; and it will continue to be felt until the names of Bacon and Donne, and Herbert and Ben Jonson are erased from the record in the temple of fame. But this is an indirect influence. The direct influence from Italy gave us these masters—the indirect influence is that which with augmented power and multiplied charms they give *us*. There had been great intellectual activity in Italy in the days of Dante and Petrarch, which was felt by Chaucer. But after Chaucer literature declined in England, and the masters of thought had "gone with their hose out at heels, their shoes out at toes, and their coats out at both elbows." Somewhat like this was the condition of letters in Italy after Petrarch died.

The Byzantine empire, which was the home of many learned students, kept the lamp of learning sending its

beams over the intellectual gloom of the Dark Ages. In 1453, however, this empire fell when Constantinople was taken by the Turks, and the men of learning, as well as their manuscripts, were scattered throughout Europe. Specially was their influence felt in Italy, where the establishment of many schools was followed by the Revival of Learning. More than one hundred thousand manuscripts are said to have been destroyed, but so many were carried away that it has been likened to the sudden releasing of a miser's hoard, so great was the stimulus exerted by the many that were not destroyed.

We must not attribute too great influence to this single event. The invention of Printing was beginning to bear fruit—the discoveries in America were widening the sphere of men's ambition, and the investigations of Copernicus were giving new views of the solar system. To all these we must add the discovery of the new route to the Indies around the Cape of Good Hope, which gave a water communication to the commerce that had been interrupted by land at the fall of Constantinople.

Leo X. became Pope in 1513, and he and his successors in the chair of St. Peter vied with each other in the munificence with which they encouraged the arts and sciences, and those literary men who were able to add to the magnificence of Italy. Poetry, music, painting, prose, architecture, sculpture, science, and the study of language, philosphy and religion, advanced at this period to an extent that has never been equalled in Italy since. It was the Augustan Age of letters in that country.

Why has the literature of Italy not grown since this period? At no subsequent time has it been so influenced by that of any other country. As the sphere of observation and circle of knowledge of the individual expand, as he is thrown into intimate relations with other minds than his own, so the literature of a nation is expanded by intercourse with other nations.

The Reformation in Germany must also be held to have been a powerful factor in producing the result we are contemplating. It was not exclusively religious in its nature nor in its effects. Michilet says of Luther, that he "legalized

in Europe the right of free examination. . . . . We cannot think, speak, write, read for a single moment, without gratefully recalling to mind this enormous benefit of intellectual enfranchisement. The very lines that I here trace, to whom do I owe it that I am able to send them forth, if not to the Liberator of modern thought?" These words have great weight as expressing the convictions of one who does not sympathize with the religious aspect of the great reformation. If a writer in the nineteenth century is thus indebted to Luther for the freedom of thought and expression, how much more, think you, must one have been indebted to him who wrote in the sixteenth century? It is therefore in both of its aspects that the reformation affected English letters. It did not add much to the depth of the religious tone of our writings, but it gave them freedom and catholicity.

It must be remarked that many of the greatest writers of this period did not visit Italy, and that some of them were little versed in any literature but that of their own land. But, on the other hand, some did visit Italy, as Surrey and Wyatt, who, in the quaint language of an old writer, "tasted the sweet and stately measures of the Italian poesie;" and, "greatly polished our rude and homely manner of vulgar poesie from that it had been before, and for that cause may justly be styled the first reformers of our English metre and style. Their conceits were lofty, their style stately, their conveyance cleanly, their terms proper, their metre sweet and well-proportioned; in all, imitating very naturally and studiously their master, Francis Petrarch." This copying or imitating of great masters had been a very marked feature in the writings of the generation after Chaucer, when the original works were few. It had an effect not entirely bad, for it made continental authors familiar to the English people, and among them those of Italy were held in the highest repute and exerted the greatest influence.

During this period Sir Philip Sidney produced his *Arcadia*, and his *Apologie for Poetrie*, the latter one of the earliest and one of the most charming pieces of English criticism. It is available in one of the reprints edited from the edition of 1595, with great care, by Edward Arber, and published

in London, by A. Murray & Son. The entire series of these reprints is worthy of much commendation, as being not only accurate, but cheap. They are for sale in New York. Another fruit of the age is the charming allegory of the *Faery Queen*, the master-piece of one of the most poetical of all poets. The *Ecclesiastical Polity* of Richard Hooker is a monument of close reasoning, from which High-Churchmen and Dissenters alike drew comfort, and arguments, but which was intended for a fair exhibition of the right of the Established Church as opposed to the Puritans. The term euphuism, as applied to fastidious antithetical compositions, dates from the publication of *Euphues*, by John Lyly, in 1636, a work of immense popularity at the time.

At this time the so-called metaphysical poets arose, of whom were John Donne, Holy George Herbert, and others of greater or less merit. The writings of this class were stilted, entangled with scholastic allusions, and crowded with paradoxes, antitheses and quaintnesses, that are only in exceptional instances admitted in the present generation. The purity of the life of Herbert has given him a place so near the heart of his readers that his faults as a composer are overlooked.

To this age also belong the *Essays*, and other writings of Francis Bacon the philosopher. His works abound in weighty thoughts, are full of suggestions, and are so concisely expressed that they will never cease to be admired.

Ben Jonson, the humorist and dramatist, was another of the famous authors of the age of Elizabeth, and he was the friend of the most famous—William Shakespeare, whose works in connection with the authorized version of the Bible, made in 1611, by order of King James I., give to the age a glory entirely its own, which cannot be rivalled by any other period of our literature, if indeed, it can be equalled by any age of any literature.

And now, turning to Italy, from which the age takes its name, we find it among the first to restrain the progress it had inaugurated. In the year 1557, Pope Paul IV. set forth an *Index Expurgatorius*, of books prohibited to be read by the faithful. The list included all Bibles in modern languages, expressly enumerating forty-eight editions, and all the

works of every description published by sixty-one printers mentioned. A special commission, called the *Congregation of the Index*, still has charge of this matter, and among the authors now under the ban, are Gibbon, Robertson, Sismondi, Hallam, Goldsmith, Descartes, Locke, Kant, J. Stuart Mill, Whately, Bacon, Milton, Addison, and Dante.

This Index exerted, however, comparatively little influence on the British Isles, where the right of private judgment was very firmly maintained. The reader of the *Vision of Piers Plowman*, and of Chaucer, notices this independent spirit of the English nation continually exhibiting itself. It was manifest in Roger Bacon, who eagerly embraced the opportunity to express his novel opinions to the Pope, his friend, disregarding the injunctions of the superior of his convent who would restrain him. We see it plainly in Wiclif, Latimer, Coverdale, Ridley, and Knox, and in our next paper we shall have occasion to note it as a feature more prominent than ever before.

"I love the racy English of old times,
  Before its Latin softness o'er it crept,
When mighty scalds were valiant in their rhymes,
  Nor tamely o'er the tinkling harpstrings swept,
  As though the spirit of their fathers slept
Or spoke in vowelled whispers among limes.
  Our native, rough-hewn words are less inept
Than daintier speech flung off in silver chimes.
Our tongue should have a likeness to the land,—
  A smack of crag and torrent, tarn and glen,
In nouns and verbs that shepherds understand,
  Meet for the use of hardy fighting men,
Brief and sonorous, till we seem to stand
  And hear brave Geoffrey Chaucer rhyme again."

Among the other authors of this period are—

Thomas Wyatt	1503–1542	Robert Burton	1576–1640
Earl of Surrey	1517–1547	Thomas Carew	1586–1639
Christopher Marlowe	1564–1593	William Chillingworth	1602–1644
Francis Beaumont	1586–1616	John Selden	1584–1654
Sir Walter Raleigh	1552–1618	Joseph Hall	1574–1656
John Fletcher	1576–1625	Archbishop Usher	1580–1656

ARTHUR GILMAN.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER I.

IT was in the spring of 1840. A lady had just entered a lawyer's office.

"Tell me, Mr. Hellwig, what must a lady do to obtain a divorce?"

The lady was entirely unknown to the man of the law. She looked decidedly aristocratic, and had entered the office like one accustomed to command. Having finished her brief address, she adjusted her blue veil which was drawn over her face, and partially covered an elegant hat of the latest style.

"Please, may I know with whom I have the honor ——?" Mr. Hellwig did *not* ask this question, having already anticipated an answer like this: "Dear sir, the name is quite immaterial." However, he *did* ask:

"A Protestant, Ma'am?" A brief "Certainly," was the answer, followed by an explanatory remark in these words:

"It concerns a friend of mine. I am not at liberty to mention her name; I undertook in her place . . . ."

Here the words became unintelligible. The speaker was evidently not used to lying.

"It is no curiosity on my part," interposed Mr. Hellwig, casting a side glance at the tall, youthful form, her stylish and heavy silk dress, and especially her elegant shoes, which bore evident traces of a recent contact with muddy roads. "But I must desire to forestall future remarks as to the nature of my advice, whatever this may be, in regard to the dissolution of a sacred tie . . . ."

"Never mind that," was the pointed reply.

The man of the law continued: "We have in such cases both the desire and official duty to prevent extremities, if possible and to open negotiations with both parties tending

to a mutual understanding, and eventually to reconciliation."

LADY. "The question has not yet arrived at this point. My friend simply desires to prepare for a possible contingency, and take advice with regard to our helpless position in . . ."

Here the lady suddenly stopped. "Are you unwell?" said the lawyer. "You need something to restore you. Doubtless, you have had a long journey. May I ring the bell?"

The lady had lifted her veil a little, and it was evident that she had changed color. When entering the room it might have been seen, even through her veil, that her face was flushed with red. After taking a seat, she turned paler and paler. Soon she had taken her handkerchief and passed it to her forehead and cheeks. Now it seemed as if a spasm had stopped her breath. She had turned aside. The lawyer was touched by the incident; he rang for water, although the lady had made a declining gesture.

She took some of the water, however, and having recovered a little, continued:

"I did not come from afar. I reside in the vicinity. It will soon pass over." This she added in a low tone, quickly concealing the coronet embroidered on her handkerchief, which had attracted the lawyer's eyes. "The spring sun is always treacherous. It was warm in the sun while the air is still cold. The wind seems to come from the mountains, on which there must still be snow . . ."

The lawyer knew now that the lady was *not* from the vicinity, and must have had a long journey.

There was a pause. The lady's countenance still showed a deadly paleness on her plastic features, which the veil could not entirely conceal. "Tell me sincerely," she said, "what causes are sufficient to obtain a divorce."

The barrister, who by this time was certain that his fair interlocutor was of the nobility, made some excuses about the delicacy of the subject, and then, encouraged by the lady's remark that she herself was married, proceeded to explain the whole series of the legitimate causes of divorce, based on the conflict of human nature with its own ideal of love, that repulsive scale which a merciless system of medi-

æval law has established by wedding the cynical theories of pagan antiquity with the curious results of the Roman confessional.

The lady, who was again fully screened by her veil, listened in breathless silence. She had not lost a word. There was another long pause. She sat in profound meditation. Her left hand mechanically seized the railing which separated the interior of the lawyer's office from the place allotted to his commoner clients. The right hand had permitted the blank corner of the handkerchief to slip from her fingers down to the floor. It was evident that she was reflecting as to which of the different categories her own case might belong. Perhaps it was hate that in this moment was revealed in the marble coldness of her features; perhaps it was nothing but calculation, quietly striking its balance. How sad is human ingenuity when bent on twisting truth and life into the dead clauses of the code by means of fiction, falsehood and even dishonor, so as to make the law a weapon fatal, perhaps, to two lives on both sides of the grave!

"And what," asked the lady, "is the relation of children who might perhaps exist . . . ?"

"The existence of children changes everything, and often even precludes divorce."

These words seemed to preoccupy the lady for a long time. A whole moral world was revealed in them. She said monotonously:

"My friend has no family."

The attorney seemed to assume now a tone of carelessness. "So much the better," he answered. "They would be reared, in such a case, with divided hearts, poor little ones!"

"But! perhaps . . . ," insinuated the lady, who evidently had now come to a point very nearly representing her own situation. She had lowered her eyes under the veil, so that her long, dark eye-lashes became visible. "But perhaps . . ." She was unable to proceed.

The lawyer came to her help. "No divorce is pronounced as long as the wife is in a state of hopefulness. This law is wise. Women are then often almost —— irresponsible. They may undertake what they afterwards

would regret. And may not the birth of a child be the occasion for a reconciliation?"

The lady's ear received every word with an eagerness which seemed to increase every moment. The lawyer was courteous enough to accept the lady's theory as to her own unconcern in the present question. Nor was he, indeed, able to discern whether he had approached already the boundaries of reality. He continued explaining what the laws had provided for such an eventuality. Remarking that the lady still maintained the same silence and forced indifference, he asked:

"May I not be informed of the real facts? You may de-
"pend on my discretion." But the lady, instead of giving an answer, suddenly rose, intimating thereby that she considered herself sufficiently informed. She commenced already a certain manœuvre with her hands, well known to the sons of Æsculapius and Themis. She adroitly took the intended fee from her porte-monnaie, placing it unnoticed on the edge of the table, so that the line of vision from the lawyer's eyes did not reach the spot.

"I am very much obliged to you," said she, and, taking her parasol, withdrew as rapidly as she had entered.

The counselor found a large gold piece on the table. He shook his head, entered the fee in his ledger, and passed to the next "business number," being a barn for whose defective qualities the purchaser had claimed an indemnity from the seller.

CHAPTER II.

OUT in the fields warbled the lark, and the blossoms shone like silver jewels on the hillocks which marked the gradual descent of the higher mountains into the plain. The roads did not favor a pedestrian: the April sun had not been able yet to dry them fully. The lady who, in Buchenried, lawyer Hellwig's residence, had asked for the shortest foot-path leading to Burghausen, the next village, was now toiling along the slippery clay paths. She was evidently unmindful of the sad inroads which the mud was making on her elegant dress. Her thoughts, her feelings seemed to be occupied only within. She

must have been a strange sight for those who met her or looked after her. Over her left arm hung a costly Cashmere shawl; an ostrich feather was on her hat; her elegant parasol had an ivory handle of the most exquisite workmanship; over her light gloves was a heavy bracelet of solid gold with jewels; her heavy silk dress might be heard rustling: sometimes its stiffness temporarily prevented her progress. To the greetings of the peasants she replied by a nod; but when a passer-by was well dressed, the anxious and examining glance of her dark eyes might be noticed.

It was near midday. Laborers were sitting by the roadside, taking their scanty meals either beneath the nascent leaves of a willow, or under an apple tree in full blossom. Our pedestrian had to pass a very slippery part of the footpath, and while she was using her parasol as a walking stick for support, the handle snapped and broke off, and she kept herself with difficulty from slipping. This was accompanied by a malicious laugh, coming from a man that lay stretched out in the grass. Holding in his hand a stick which he had just cut from a bush, he asked her tauntingly,

"May I offer to Madam my cane?"

The wanderer hastened along without answering. But on a sudden the man stood by her side. He bore his coat on the stick, and was in shirt sleeves. The midday sun was warm.

"I guess, there is a ball in Burghausen, Madam," he said with the same scornful tone that had just frightened her. "Or perhaps there *was* a ball in Buchenried, and you have missed your carriage?"

If the blackguard had a good ear, he must have heard her breathing. She did not reply, but her deadly anguish made her almost fly along the road.

"By ——, your feet are nimble, Madam, or Miss," remarked the suspicious character with an oath, trying at the same time to keep pace with her whom he seemed to have singled out for a companion on his way. She saw with a shudder that he was making arrangements to put on his coat, and that his stick would soon be free. A single glance had been sufficient for her to notice his savage face, his reddish and matted beard, his sly, cat-like eyes, a pug nose and a low wrinkled forehead.

The way led now through a copse with thick underbrush. She entered it with a shudder.

"Are you acquainted here, Madam?"

The lady did not reply, but hastened on.

"Why do not put on such airs," he continued, "I am not going to hurt you. You should be glad for having pleasant company."

There was no reply.

"Shall I carry your shawl? or, give me your parasol; it is anyhow of no use here in the woods ——"

The lady grasped her parasol tighter, as if it were a weapon which she might use in case of necessity.

"I shall not trouble you," she said at length. "If you are for Burghausen, you will please walk alone."

"For Burghausen? My journey is very much farther. Do you know the Chateau of Wildenschwert?"

The lady stood still as if thunderstruck. Perhaps it was the effect of the question, or the consequence of a glance by which she had discovered a large pocket-knife looming from her companion's side pocket. At the same moment she saw his eyes fixed on her bracelet. A gesture of his arm seemed to follow the direction of his eyes. At this instant several reports of guns were heard not far off. His arm was suddenly stopped and lifted, as if to test the wind. "Ah!" said he, "there is no wind. Just the weather for shooting the woodcock. I am a huntsman, you must know, and looking round for a new place, since I have lost my old one."

In the meanwhile they had again come on the open field, and the huntsman, who said that his name was Hennenhöft, that he had served as a soldier among the sharpshooters, and then had been a forrester with a nobleman. He had lost this place and was going to Wildenschwert, where he had an old comrade, called Wülfing, being the Count of Wildenschwert's forrester. Perhaps Wülfing could tell him where he might apply for a place.

The lady made the remark that she, too, was acquainted in Wildenschwert, but that there was no forrester there of the name Wülfing.

By this time they were met by some peasants, and the lady, whose courage seemed to have revived, said to

her companion: "You would indeed oblige me by allowing me to walk alone. Take this for your journey." With these words she handed him a silver dollar. The huntsman, taking off his cap, put the dollar into his pocket, stopped, and allowed the lady to proceed.

She hastened on with all her might without even looking back once. She did not stop till she had reached the inn of the little village where an express mail coach was waiting for her. She immediately stepped in, giving the order to proceed. After changing horses on three or four stations, she dismissed the carriage in the little town of Altenberg. From here she took half an hour's walk to a small village, where she found a magnificent coach with a Count's coronet at the side door. A footman in a light brown livery sprang from the box, and said while opening the door:

"We have long been waiting for you, most gracious Countess; we began to be greatly alarmed."

"I had to stay longer than I expected with the minister's wife," was the reply, while she was entering the carriage. Now, drive home, as quick as the horses will run."

It struck nine o'clock, when the Countess alighted from her carriage at the entrance of the Chateau of Wildenschwert. That the lady of the house was coming home so late, that she was coming alone, and went directly to her own rooms, all this the servants of the chateau seemed to consider as quite natural. Nor did they seem to think it strange that the Count was not in the least disturbed by the arrival of the Countess, but remained in the rather noisy company of his friends, whom he, after a day's hunt, was entertaining in the splendidly illuminated banqueting hall of his castle.

CHAPTER III.

THE Lady Jadwiga, Countess of Wildenschwert, had entered her dressing-room, followed by Mrs. Derenbach, her newly engaged housekeeper. She was asking some questions, but did not seem to pay much attention to the answers. Only one wistful and anxious look she cast into her adjoining closet, to inquire whether there were any letters on the marble waiter. She had briefly remarked that she was

satisfied with the results of her trip, the object of which had been represented to the people in the house as very different from what it really was. She found one single letter only. But it seemed to be the one she had expected. Her dress had been changed by her maid, while a loud conversation, the rattling of plates, the jingling of glasses sounded from the hall on the opposite wing of the castle. Of the supper that was served for her she took only a cup of hot and strong tea. The rest she sent back without touching anything else. When she was alone she locked carefully her door, threw herself on a lounge, and hastily opening the letter, which was from her most intimate friend Linda de Fernau, read as follows:

"DEAR JADWIGA, I am deeply afflicted both by your open confessions and your hardly less plain intimations. You may be assured that your secret is safe with me. Even my husband shall hear nothing of it, although he saw me reading the letter, and immediately asked me whether there was nothing in it of his brother. You know how everything concerning Otto excites him.

"But you are wrong in believing that he hates his brother Otto. He has taken care for his education, as you know, with a view to open for his rare talents a splendid career. But my husband certainly is not responsible for Otto's perpetual changes. He took him from the Military Academy not in order to close his military career, but to give him a better and more brilliant chance by university studies and journeys. But, instead of re-entering the army as an officer, he entered the diplomatic service, for which he lacks about every necessary qualification. Thus we soon saw him quit that profession too. But what is he to do now? Henry, in his just indignation at Otto, said, only the other day, he would live to see Otto a horse jockey, raising horses for the turf, or betting on them!

"Dear Jadwiga, I know, I must give you pain, because . . . . No, I can not write out the word which you in your last letter openly pronounced and repeated again and again, to my terror. I adjure you, conquer yourself! You have already written to Henry that you contemplate a separation from your husband; but you did not write him why you intend that step. He, however, has a suspicion, and this suspicion makes him unspeakably unhappy, as if we could have borne some part in your unfortunate resolution, to make your husband miserable. Henry told me that your husband had committed the folly to resign, in the contract which he made with your father, your whole fortune in the case that you would die without issue, and even in the case of a separation. So great was Bernhard's love to you, and even his delicacy to refute your parents' possible suspicion of his having asked your hand for the sake of your worldly goods!

"You must not expect any assistance on my part, and I must decline all your requests in that direction, especially since by a strong resolution and sincere efforts on your part, you may still restore your relation to him to whom you have promised in the presence of God to belong for ever."

When the Countess had read her friend's letter to the end, she flung it with a disdainful expression of her haughty face into the fire that was burning on the grate. She was evidently trying to get rid of the impressions the letter had made on her. She listened attentively to the noise caused by the departure of her husband's guests, to their loud laughter, leave taking, calling for umbrellas, to the orders given to the drivers and servants, and to the barking of the hounds. She had not asked for the names of the guests, and regretted the omission, since the noise of the departure was now assuming a peculiar character. It turned into quarrel, and violent altercation. She heard the shrill voice of her husband:

"Miserable wretch! I shall not endure this impudence any longer!"

All was quiet again. Only the storm was raging. The rain was clattering by intervals at the high windows of the castle.

The Countess tried to guess to which of the servants this outburst of indignation was directed. She had never known the Count's anger excited to such a degree. Jadwiga unlocked her door, passed through the ante-room, and then stepped out into the corridor, which run through the whole length of the building. As she came to a back staircase, she found it occupied by a crowd of servants, who were listening with anxiety. The housekeeper, Mrs. Derenbach, was almost fainting. The Count's voice had been loud again.

"It is Wülfing," said the servants.

Indeed, Wülfing, the forrester, was coming along in his torn livery, soiled, with confused hair, deadly pale and staggering as if deranged in his mind. Suddenly he made a jump on the staircase. All took to their heels. The Countess retreated.

When the forrester saw her, he laughed like a maniac:

"Beaten! Kicked! With—with——"

The words stuck in his throat.

The Countess took courage again. Only the first encounter with the infuriated man she had avoided. Now it was almost necessary to prevent her by force from stepping in Wülfing's way.

When she had returned to her room she learned from the maid, and then from the cook and the gardener, that Wülfing during the whole evening had not conducted himself properly. He had received a letter that had made him clench his fists and even grate his teeth with hardly suppressed curses. He had committed the greatest blunders while waiting on the Count. He had dropped a dish, right on the Count's person; he had not even expressed a regret, and received the Count's reprimand with defiance. When the guests had been departing, he had made a great confusion in handing over the cloaks and overcoats. Two of the guests had to remain in the house over night, and the Count had requested him to light the two gentlemen to their rooms. Then he had made some reply; but the reporters were at variance as to what this reply had been.

At this occasion, the Countess learned at length the names of the guests, and that the two gentlemen staying over night were old acquaintances of the Count's, the one being Doctor Staudner of Wiesbach, the other a clergyman, whose name could not be given.

Now all became silent again. Since the last carnival Countess Jadwiga had declared herself sick, and in consequence was sleeping alone in the wing of the chateau which she inhabited. She might have gone to the Count now to appease the highly excited man. But she overcame this sentiment. The storm continued. The shutters, the vanes on the turrets rattled and jarred. The lights in the apartments and the corridors were extinguished. Jadwiga retired to rest, not a little disturbed by the association of Wülfing with her late traveling companion, whose ill auguring and dangerous visit at Castle Wildenschwert she might justly anticipate.

CHAPTER IV.

NEXT morning it was said that Wülfing had disappeared from the castle. But he had left his clothes and his arms. From this it was inferred that he would return.

His arbitrary absence was likely to make bad worse.

The Count had sent to the Countess a note in which he apologized for the tumult of last night, and announced to her the visit of Doctor Staudner, and Pastor Nesselborn. Being afraid of the threatened visit of her terrible companion, she in her answer requested the Count not to trouble himself any longer with Wülfing, and consider him as dismissed from his service.

She left the care for the Count's guests entirely to Mrs. Derenbach, the housekeeper. With Doctor Staudner she was acquainted. As to the other, she knew that the innkeeper's daughter in the neighboring village had married a young candidate for the ministry, who was a fellow-student of several young noblemen residing in the vicinity. She thought it probable that this was her husband's other guest, whose acquaintance the latter might have made for taking advice relative to his collections of old coins, old books and antiquities. For all these hobbies of the Count's she had not the least sympathy.

She heard his voice.

"Jadwiga, may I come in?"

Although the door was not locked the Count did not enter, but waited till the Countess had opened and received him with an embarrassed "Good morning!"

"May I hope to introduce you to my guests before dinner? Perhaps at breakfast?"

"You had a great trouble yesterday," was the Countess's evasive answer.

"Wülfing was impudent. He had always properly behaved before. Something must have crossed him. I think I shall subdue him——"

"You had better leave that to others. I hope he is not to come back."

"On the contrary, those subdued characters will be the best afterwards. I may then count on your taking breakfast with us?"

"Seriously, I should not make my house a 'subduing-institute,' if I were you."

"There will be two scholars—our physician and a clergyman."

"My nerves are affected! Servants should be either decidedly good, or they are good for nothing. A reforming of criminals ought to be left to the benevolent societies."

"The name of the clergyman is Nesselborn. His wife is the innkeeper's daughter at the Moor's Head. She has also been invited by me, being on a visit with her parents. She is coming to-day, and will return with her husband. It would amuse you to laugh at the sparkling remarks of the little woman——"

"I am not in the humor of laughing——"

Jadwiga was following up her ideas, and Count Bernhard his. Thus it was always. If Jadwiga happened to speak of Paris, and the Count's topic was London, they would not come together. Both went their own ways and remained in them. These are the characters of "Absolute Initiative." Two such natures operate like two locomotives running against each other. The one must be smashed—perhaps both.

Count Bernhard had a peculiar way of treating such misunderstandings with the Countess. It consisted in taking her opinions and assertions as entitled to respect, and in retreating with his own opinions unchanged. Scarcely had he heard Jadwiga's declaration that she was not in a state to make the honors of the house, when he was already withdrawing from her room with the most complacent smile:

"At dinner, then! You had a letter of Linda Fernau? They are all well, I hope?"

He did not even wait for an answer. Such was this man whom Jadwiga, preöccupied by whim or passion, was going to shake off. She would have liked it better, had he directly gainsayed her. But she was provoked by his "dogmatic style of treating her," and by his clearly indicated "compassion," if people were not so happy as to agree with his views.

It might be doubtful, whether the Count had withdrawn from want of interest, or because he knew that some time

was necessary for Jadwiga till she would enter into his views. He evidently knew his wife well, and was fully acquainted with the effects of his system, which this time consisted in his personal call at the rooms of his wife, his request to receive his guests, and his asking after the health of her friend. He knew that the Countess would generally reconsider the question, and try to approach his own views. But this very fact showed the Count's moral ascendancy, and the Countess knew it and suffered by it. She would not allow to the Count the claim to consider himself wiser than she was. Indeed, unless the whole magnetic power of love binds the hearts and disposes them to homogeneous action, marriage becomes an intolerable encroachment on our personal freedom.

Count Bernhard breakfasted alone with his guests. The weather remained unfriendly. The rain had ceased indeed, but it was cold. The wind was bending the tops of the trees in the park, which on several points directly touched the chateau. The company remained with comfort within. Nor was the Count inexperienced in attracting intelligent minds. Possessing a manifold scholarship, he had been for a long time in the administration of the government, which he left only to be united with the Lady Jadwiga of Wolmerode. His means of subsistence had been moderate; now he was living in abundance. He employed his new wealth to building, improving his mortgaged estates, collecting rare coins and antiquities, and otherwise gratifying his fancies. For a battle-axe or an arrow-head of a New Zealand savage he paid more money than a highly finished double rifle was worth or a fashionable lounge which might have adorned a palace. For a sum which he spent for an old Tartar-saddle or a pair of iron spurs worn by some historical celebrity, he might have been able to keep another saddle horse. These collections were in a new wing of the old-fashioned chateau, which was built with much taste and elegance. This wing contained a complete museum. In another new wing the Count had placed his library, which was perpetually increased by new purchases, especially in the economical and ethnographical departments.

There was not the slightest sympathy in Jadwiga for her husband's world. People said that she had chosen him in

order to become a Countess. But those that knew better, added that she was the only daughter in a family which for half a century had drawn an enormous fortune from mines, bought at merely nominal prices by her grandfather. Only he father of Jadwiga had been raised to the rank of nobility. Death had deprived her early of her mother, who was not of a noble but of a very wealthy family. Her father, who cared only for increasing his wealth, had left her in the hands of instructors and governesses. Her character was developed not to her advantage, or speaking more correctly, not to please men in general. She could be full of passionate devotion to an idea or to a person, as for instance to her friend Linda de Fernau. But just as harsh and repulsive she was towards others. Therefore the number of her suitors, despite her exquisite and remarkable beauty, was not even in proportion to her enormous wealth. At length her father was induced to marry again. He had chosen a lady of an old but very poor family. This connection provoked Jadwiga not a little. Now she would have liked to become a princess, only to play a trump against her charming and haughty step-mother. And when her friend Linda, who was poor, and three years younger than herself, had found a suitor at her very first entrance into society, a Mr. de Fernau, a councellor of the government, Jadwiga was determined to accept the first best husband who should be in the possession of the desired qualities. One day she presented herself to her haughty step-mother as engaged to a Count, and triumphed when she noticed the ill concealed mortification of her who unsparingly ruled over her father. The impure motives of this connection soon brought revenge on the head of their authors. The Count, while wooing, showed his most amiable qualities. He seemed to have a fantastic devotion for Miss de Wolmerode, and went to such a length as to make a contract with his future father-in-law, which this latter, an avaricious money-maker, could not have made with greater selfishness. As for Jadwiga, it became clearer every day that she felt the want of internal happiness, at least as she herself understood it. Her pride had merely a relative strength, and existed only in regard to her step-mother and the family of the latter. Else her faults were neither those of pride nor those of avarice and

cupidity. No ignoble passions would be allowed to fill up the void which she felt within her. She even could feel an inspiration for certain things, but not for such as were according to everybody's taste. A beautiful scenery left her indifferent, while for a picture representing such scenery she might have expended large sums, especially if she knew that the picture was admired by others. The same object which to-day was without interest for her would throw her into ecstacy to-morrow, if she became interested in persons or conditions connected with it. Sometimes she would enter into certain relations for mere external causes, as for instance, if persons coming into contact with her had a pleasant voice in speaking. Again other relations were dissolved by her, merely for the sake of a certain color of the furniture or rooms belonging to such persons being distateful to her. With all this it could not even be said that these were mere whims or caprices, produced by either vanity or frivolous wantonness. On the contrary, they were the outburst of a nature not even satisfied with herself. Her nature was always bent on finding a center for those capricious eradiations which gave no satisfaction to herself. Truly, she might be called unhappy.

It was soon clear that she did not find this center in her husband. Had she had true humor she might have saved herself by the expedient of irony. But humor, if pure and genuine, is only the inheritance of childlike souls. It was not her judgment that made her oppose what was unpalatable to her; but it disturbed her physically, oppressed and suffocated her: it took the vital air from her atmosphere. Count Bernhard had been satisfied that she hated education, and civilization itself. "All that is system and method makes her head ache," he was wont to say to himself: "She would, like Caliph Omar, burn all books, banish all science and art from the world, if but an illustrated toy-book remained, which she in her childhood had read with pleasure. All that has or is mind, is a burden to her."—In other words, he attributed her qualities to ignorance. When these two opposite poles for the first time met each other, and the Count's system, to incommode one another as little as possible, had not yet been introduced, he had openly expressed this opinion to her. But one day he found this

strange being poring over a learned book. He saw that she had been studying in it for weeks, and had extracted whole passages from it. It was not long before he had found out that she had studied the book because her friend Linda had written about it with raptures. The Count was enough of a psychologist to see that it was mere jealousy and envy which had become her Muse. But still he covered her hand with kisses, apologizing with repentance for having reproached her for want of knowledge.

CHAPTER V.

THE breakfast room was in the first story in the rear of the chateau. It opened a view over the little village which was inhabited by the families of the agricultural laborers, engaged by the Count. A new school house had just been commenced, as the first of those reforms to which the Count proposed to employ his large income. The company consisted of the Inspector placed over the whole agricultural department of the estate; of a surveyor, whom an accident had brought to the castle, and of the two guests who had lodged in the chateau last night. While the Count was presiding over the table, having apologized for the absence of his wife, the young clergyman began to speak of the new school house. He said he had just been in the temporary building in which the school was kept, and had listened to the recitations from the outside. He professed to be a pedagogue by right of inheritance, his father, a plain village schoolmaster, having given him the name Lienhard, in honor of the great reformer of education, and in remembrance of one of his most popular educational novels.

The young clergyman referred to the novel "Lienhard and Gertrud," by Pestalozzi, a book completely unknown to the Count. Lienhard Nesselborn, the young minister, gave a very clear statement on the subject of the book.

At this occasion a discussion arose on education and school in general. The Count found fault with his schoolmaster, judging him according to the one-sided prejudices of his

equals in rank. Already on the previous day he had professed himself to be one of those aristocrats of modern style, to whom the slang of our legislative assemblies has given the name of "Free-conservatives." The whole school question, he said, was now altogether overdone. The teachers were "good-for-nothings," filled with the ideas of self-conceit and the cravings for luxury prevailing in our epoch. He alleged, to support his strictures, the testimony of his own pastor.

Here young Nesselborn, although himself a pastor, burst forth: "They are nice fellows, these pastors! An old enmity separates church and school. It is increasing more and more. Schoolhouse and parsonage had better turn their backs to each other ——"

"Is it you that say so," replied the Count, "who are yourself a member of the clergy?"

Dr. Staudner, the young physician, gave a hint to his friend, and tried to direct the conversation into another channel. "Mr. Anbelang," he said to the Inspector, "you must take care that the church is placed between school and parsonage! Has not the church here several years ago been . . ."

"Five years ago," was the rapid reply, before Dr. Staudner had the time to add to his unfinished question the words "struck by lightning."

"I am more of a pedagogue than of a clergyman," continued Mr. Nesselborn, in spite of the interruption. He added that his father at first had intended him to be his successor in the village school, when, through the influence of relatives, he had been brought to the gymnasium and the university. But he could never suppress an inclination ingrafted in him in early life. He had become a member of the teachers' seminary, established at the university, and had gone over every course of pedagogical science under several disciples of Pestalozzi, who had laid their foundation in the very school of Jferten, established by the great master himself. He would be very happy, if fate should again transfer him from the pulpit to the chair. Surely, there was no greater science and none more entitled to the highest rank among liberal arts than that which commits to our care the child's soul, fresh from the hands of nature, and teaches

us to carry it on steps rising higher and higher towards pure and incorrupt humanity.

"If you should arrive at such a point," answered the Count, "you would have formed one of your new-fangled, modern citizens, a being that denies all traditional order, refuses obedience to the King and the powers that be, but particularly abuses 'black gowns,' and abolishes all kinds of religious authority, or at best maintains it only for the sake of expediency."

After these sharp remarks by the Count, which had won the full assent of both the inspector and surveyor, the young clergyman was silent, looking significantly at his friend Staudner, by whom he had been introduced here, and who now neither assisted nor wholly deserted him. So much appeared from what the latter remarked in a jesting and sarcastic tone:

"Strictly speaking, the school should indeed have precedence of the church. With the Jews, who are our models in almost everything else, there was one single, grand church, Solomon's temple; but there were no other churches, but only schools in the different cities. Whoever intended 'to go to church' on a Saturday, went 'to school' where there was teaching and catechising, I do not know whether after the method of Socrates or of Dinter . . ."

But the Count, ignoring this interruption, continued in his invectives against the exaggerated claims of common school teachers, adding a statement of those difficulties which had arisen between his schoolmaster and his minister. However, he forgot not for a moment his duties to his guests. He regaled them after breakfast with Southern wines and cigars, and the young clergyman, gradually recovering from his defeat, resumed again his clerical privilege of giving the key to the conversation, a privilege which the Count seemed willing to acknowledge.

Lienhard Nesselborn had, indeed, uncommon and brilliant attainments. He took now an opportunity of returning to his former subject. Although he avoided the mistake of placing the extremes of the question in the same strong light as before, he yet took again his stand on the side of the school.

"The clergy," he said, "claim the superintendence over the school without knowing anything about the education of the youthful mind. This claim is a remainder of those times in which Frederick the Great detailed his corporals on the service of schoolmasters. But in our days, the fate of all nations commanding respect, has pointed out the necessity that in the very lowest strata of popular life all must be renewed, strengthened and intensified as to its capacity. At present the school of the people has outgrown the horizon of learned or Latin education.

"To learn reading, writing, cyphering seems to be very easy. But it is generally forgotten how enormously difficult it is, even to pave properly the way for these attainments. You might reply, perhaps, that even the old time has accomplished this task without resorting to the modern —— nonsense, or whatever other name Count Bernhard may apply to it. But consider how small was the number of those to whom the gifts of the Holy Spirit were transmitted. And what were those very gifts? Were they fiery tongues, or were they not rather a mere mechanism incapable of engaging the moral and intellectual faculties of man?

"Teaching must become educating, and learning must become an acquiring not only of knowledge but of power. The elementary instruction must plant the seeds of further development, and the exercise of memory and the bracing of intellect must go hand in hand with the higher aim of bringing out all powers belonging to man as an individual. It is true our great master, Henry Pestalozzi, the noble Swiss, has claimed that his method might be applied like a mechanical contrivance, a calculating machine, or a cooking recipe. But he evidently meant nothing else, except that he had made provision even for the contingency that the supply of true teachers should not equal the demand. However, be this as it may, even this mechanism is not an easy one: it must be acquired, applied and modified according to circumstances. All these are fields through which we theologians, knowing perhaps how to analyze a chorus of Sophocles, or what reading to adopt in a ticklish passage of the Epistle to the Romans, are groping our way as if in a dark night.

The Count had only once interrupted Nesselborn's stream of eloquence. He asked the servants whether Wülfing had returned. When this question had been answered in the negative, he gave orders to lock the forrester's room and hand him the key. Then he asked Mr. Nesselborn to continue, and excuse the interruption.

"All this is very well," he added; "but these schoolmasters must be kept in humility and in the fear of the Lord, else they will become extravagant and make their peasants so. They begin to be insolent anyhow."

Here Doctor Staudner cast a side glance toward the billiard room, placed his left hand flat on the table and pressed his thumb to the forefinger, giving to understand by his pantomime, how much preferable a game of billiards would be to a conversation which would hardly end with one of the combatants being converted to the opinion of the other.

The hint was taken, and the whole party repaired to the billiard room.

NOVEL ARITHMETIC.—An Ohio correspondent becomes sponsor for the following, which, as a matter of fact, he wishes to put on record: Whittaker is one of the richest men in those parts, and has made his money by driving sharp bargains. His hired man was one day going along with a load of hay, which he overturned upon a cow. The poor thing was smothered to death before they could get her out. Her owner, Jones, called upon Mr. Whittaker the next day, and demanded payment for the loss of his cow.

"Certainly," said Mr. Whittaker, "what do you think she is worth?"

"Well, about ten dollars," said Jones.

"How much did you get for the hide and tallow?"

"Ten dollars and a half, sir."

"O, well, then you owe me just fifty cents."

Jones was mystified, and Whittaker very fierce in his demand, and before Jones could get the thing straight in his mind, he forked over the money.—*New York Tribune.*

FICTION AS AN EDUCATOR.

MR. GALTON, in his work on hereditary genius, asserts genius to be irrepressible. To us it seems, like all other kindling matter, to need a spark; and whatever is not inherent, but imparted, may be wanting. It may be wanting either through abject circumstances, or effectual repression in childhood, the period when the divine touch is given—given in some moment of careless leisure, through the medium of delight, using fancy for its ministrant. There is a critical moment in childhood when it is open to impressions with a keener apprehension than at any other period of existence. Scenes and images strike on the dawning mind, and elicit a flash of recognition, which later on in life, and taken in through gradual processes, would effect no such marvel. It is perhaps when the first glimpse of the possibilities of life falls on a just-awakening intelligence that the light is caught most readily, and tells most lastingly on the intellect. The idea must not only interest, it must be new—something hitherto undreamt of. A child's first apprehension of poetic fiction is a revelation,—fiction, that is, that either tells something absolutely new, like the heroic aspect of life—great deeds and wonderful adventures—or which gives an insight into the passions, the stir, and excitement of manhood. Nothing written for children can produce this commotion in the whole nature; it must be something absolutely out of the sphere of experience, representing life in a new and wonderful aspect, of which before there was no conception, and which yet is recognized at once for truth. And, as we have said, it must be come upon by accident and at unawares. There is fiction, noble fiction, in all classical training; but men don't look back upon their lessons for the moment of illumination we speak of. Probably it has come before to them; for early childhood is the time when wonder, curiosity, expectation, susceptibility, and pleasure itself, are separate from personal consciousness. It is when a child is lost in a book or heroic tale, to the utter forgetfulness of self, that the germ springs into life. The poet is *made* as well as born. It is here that the making begins.

Walter Scott had received his bent at three years old, long before he could read, when he shouted the ballad of Hardikanute to the annoyance of his aunt Janet's old bachelor visitors.

Children's tales of the moral sort, however well told, and however valuable for safe reading and innocent amusement, work no wonders of this kind. A child's story deliberately treats of matters with which the child is familiar; all the grown-up characters are drawn from his point of view. Miss Edgeworth wrote nothing better than Simple Susan, but it touches on no new ground. No one looks back upon it as a starting-point of thought. Still less influential in this direction are those that draw society; that bring boys and girls together, and make them talk and act upon one another as it is supposed that boys and girls do act. At best, a child learns appropriate lessons for its own conduct from them. Miss Sewell's valuable tales on one hand, and Tom Brown on the other, open out no vision of life; they are not of the fiction that sows the seeds we mean, though they induce swarms of imitators amongst their older readers and admirers; no doubt, for one reason, that a child's criticism, its questioning satirical temper is at once roused—the posture of mind least akin to inspiration. In the domestic tale there is a constant appeal to the probable. Here the child cannot but feel as a judge. It has quick sight to detect bombast and want of nature, which might have passed current in unfamiliar scenes, and enacted by men and women. And because verse is more out of the range of a child's critical judgment than prose, and a tale sung is lifted into a higher region than a tale said, we find romance in harmonious numbers take the first place as instigator and stimulant to the latent spark of genuis. How much of our poetry, for instance, owes its start to Spenser? when the "Fairy Queen" was a household book, and lay on the parlor window-seat! Before the drawing-room table had a literary existence, the window-seat fulfilled its function as the home for the light literature of the day. The parlor window was the form of popularity Montaigne affected to despise and dread for his essays, as placing him within everybody's reach—not of critics only. Clearly the window-seat was

better adapted for the explorations of childhood than its modern substitute, as being easily climbed into, more snug and retired, a miniature study, in fact, presenting a hiding-place from curious observers behind the curtain; and the window itself, a ready resource for wandering eyes, when the labor of reading, of attention, even of excitement demanded a pause. "In the window of his mother's apartment lay Spenser's 'Fairy Queen,'" writes Johnson of Cowley, "in which he very early took delight to read, till, by feeling the charms of verse, he became, as he relates, irrecoverably a poet. Such are the accidents," he goes on to say, "which, sometimes remembered, and perhaps sometimes forgotten, produce that particular designation of mind and propensity for some certain science or employment which is commonly called genius." With his self-chosen studies Cowley acquired that disinclination for the asperities of a formal education which maturé genius so often laments, "and he became such an enemy to all constraint, that his master never could prevail on him to learn the rules of grammar." Pope says, "I read the 'Fairy Queen' with infinite delight at twelve." Dryden calls Milton the poetical son of Spenser; and all recent biography gives to Spenser the same pre-eminence as a prompter of the nation's genius. And this not only because the flow of his verse and his charm of narrative naturally attract children, but that the brilliancy and the strangeness and the utter difference between life as he draws it, and life as the child knows it, especially qualifies it for the work. The "Fairy Queen" does not so much suggest imitation as other poems do of equal power, but it awakes a faculty. The poets adduced never followed their first teacher; they caught nothing from him but the impulse—the flash. Another remarkable and eventful impulse of the same nature, and for the same reason, was the publication of the "Arabian Nights," awaking power without giving its direction. To this Wordsworth testifies:—

> "Dumb yearnings, hidden appetites are ours,
> And *they must* have their food . . . .
> In that dubious hour,
> That twilight when we first begin to see

This dawning earth, to recognize, expect,
And in the long probation that ensues
The time of trial, ere we learn to live
In reconcilement with our stinted powers.
. . . Oh! then we feel, we feel,
We know where we have friends. Ye dreamers, then,
Forgers of daring tales! We bless you then,
Impostors, drivellers, dotards, as the ape
Philosophy will call you; *then* we feel
With what and how great might ye are in league,
Who make our wish our power, our thought a deed,
An empire, a possession,—ye whom time
And seasons serve: all Faculties to whom
Earth crouches, the elements are potter's clay,
Space like a heaven filled up with northern lights
Here, nowhere, there, and everywhere at once:"

and Dr. Newman, in his recollections of early childhood, writes: "I used to wish the Arabian Tales were true; my imagination ran on unknown influences, on magical powers and talismans. . . . I thought life might be a dream, or I an angel, and all this world a deception, my fellow-angels by a playful device concealing themselves from me, and deceiving me with the semblance of a material world."—*(To be continued.)—Blackwood's Magazine.*

SIR BOYLE ROACHE has hitherto been regarded as the undisputed master in the use of the elegant rhetorical figure known as mixed metaphor; but one of the councilors of Birmingham may now fairly dispute with him the honor of carrying this art to the highest perfection. This learned gentleman, who rejoices in the name of Perks, has discovered that there is "stalking about" that famous town "a liberalism which is fast degenerating into downright infidelity," and warns the Protestants of Birmingham that if they "do not put their shoulders to the wheel to keep the tide back, they will shortly be overflooded with it." This is certainly a very dangerous spirit which stalks about the streets in the shape of a tide, which can only be kept back by the citizens putting their shoulders to the wheel. This impressive warning was given to the School Board of Birmingham, and we trust that it will not be lost upon it.

EMINENT TEACHERS AND EDUCATORS DECEASED IN 1870.

ANDERSON, Rev. WILLIAM C., D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman, was for several years President of Miami University, Oxford, O., and the institution prospered under his presidency. When the young Empire of the Pacific began the urgent demand, which it has since persistently kept up, for our strongest men of the Atlantic and Central States for its pulpits, Dr. Anderson was urgently called to the pastorate of the First Presbyterian Church, San Francisco, and accepted. After several years of arduous labor there his health failed and he returned to the East and lived a retired life at Germantown, Philadelphia. His health being measurably restored, he was returning to the Pacific coast and died suddenly at Junction City, Kansas, August 29, 1870.

ALLEN, Rev. D. HOWE, D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman, whose eminent scholarship caused him to be elected a Professor in Marietta College, Ohio, soon after his graduation, from whence he was called about 1830 to the Chair of Sacred Rhetoric and Pastoral Theology in Lane Seminary, and subsequently, under the re-organization of the Seminary, to the Chair of Systematic Theology. He resigned in 1867 on account of declining health, and was appointed Professor Emeritus. He died at Granville, Ohio, November 9, aged about 65.

BALDWIN, Rev. THERON, D.D., eminent both as a teacher and a promoter of education, was born in Goshen, Ct., in 1801, graduated from Yale College in 1827, with high honors, studied Theology at New Haven, was ordained in the Congregationalist Ministry as a Home Missionary in 1829, commenced his labors at Vandalia, Ill., the same year. In 1832 he was called from his post to raise funds for Illinois College, Jacksonville, was Exploring Agent and Missionary for American H. M. Society, 1833–1837; organized and was Principal of Monticello Female Seminary, 1837–43; organized and was Corresponding Secretary of the Western College Society from 1843 to his death in 1870. In this ca-

pacity he accomplished more for the promotion of Collegiate Education in the West than any other man of his time. He died at Orange, N. J., on the 10th of April, in the 69th year of his age.

BASSINI, CARLO, a teacher of vocal music, of remarkable ability; a musical composer and author of excellent text-books on vocalization, was a native of Cuneo, in Piedmont, born in 1812, of musical parentage, and from an early age a most indefatigable student of instrumental music. At twenty years of age he had already attained a high reputation as a violinist. A few years later he accompanied a Genoese operatic troupe to South America, and was elected their director soon after their arrival. The engagement proved profitable, and after a short stay in Cuba, where he married, he came to New York, ventured his all upon a grand Concert at Triple Hall and lost his entire earnings. Abandoning thenceforward the position of orchestral leader, he devoted himself to giving instruction in vocal music and preparing text-books for it. He worked hard in his vocation, and was abundantly successful. His text-books, five or six in number, rank as the best of their kind. He had recently purchased a beautiful country seat at Irvington, N. J., where he died Nov. 26, aged 58 years.

BEDFORD, GUNNING S., M. D., an eminent physician and medical professor, author, and resident in New York for about thirty years, and during most of that time a professor in the University Medical College. He had published several professional text-books and also some occasional addresses. He died in New York city, September 5, aged 64 years.

BERIOT, CHARLES AUGUSTE DE, an eminent musical composer, violinist, and for more than twenty years professor of instrumental music in the Conservatoire at Brussels, died in Brussels, Belgium, April 12. He was born at Louvain in February, 1802, studied music there and in Paris, and made his first appearance in Paris, as a violinist, at the same time with Paganini. He married Madame Malibran in 1836, and was appointed professor at Brussels in 1842. After twenty years service was compelled to resign in consequence of blindness.

BLAKE, WILLIAM HUME, LL.D., an eminent Canadian jurist, Chancellor of the Court of Chancery for Canada, from 1845 to 1862, and professor of law in the University of Toronto for many years, died in Toronto, Nov. 15, 1870.

BURGESS, EBENEZER, D.D., a Congregationalist clergyman, author and teacher, was born in Wareham, Mass., April 1, 1790, educated at Brown University, 1809, afterward tutor there, and professor in Vermont University till 1815. He sailed for Africa in 1817 with Samuel J. Mills, and was one of the founders and first Superintendent of the Colony, afterward the Republic of Liberia. Soon after his return he was settled at Dedham, and there for fifty years was an active and earnest promoter of common school education. One of the large public schools of the town was named the Burgess school, and at his death the schools were all closed and the children followed his body to the grave. He died December 5, 1870.

COLVER, Rev. NATHANIEL, D.D., a Baptist clergyman, author and public lecturer, principally identified with the cause of education by his efforts for forming the Colver Institute at Richmond for the education of freedmen for the ministry, died in Chicago, Sept. 25, aged 77. He had been nearly fifty-three years in the ministry, and always an earnest promoter of education. At the close of the war Dr. Colver, by dint of vigorous and protracted effort, succeeded in establishing in Richmond a school of high grade for educating men of color as ministers to their own race, and led the way in the great effort now making by several religious denominations to educate preachers for the freedmen.

CHASE, Rev. BENJAMIN, D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman and teacher in Mississippi, born in New Hampshire in 1789, graduated from Middlebury College, and went to the South early, spending some years in New Orleans, and being one of the founders, promoters, and professors of Oakland College, Mississippi, to which he contributed a valuable geological cabinet. He died at his residence, near Natchez, Miss., Oct. 11, 1870, in the eighty-second year of his age.

CHASSELL, Rev. DAVID, D.D., a very eminent Presbyterian clergyman and teacher, born in Glasgow, Scotland,

April 30, 1787; removed to this country in 1795, graduated from Dartmouth College in 1810; was principal of Caledonia County Academy, Peacham, Vt., 1810–1815; of Cambridge Academy, Washington Co., N. Y., 1815–1821; in Fairfield Academy, Herkimer Co., N. Y., from 1821 to 1840, and, after an interval of rest, two years more; and for two years subsequently was principal of the Herkimer Academy. The remainder of his active life was passed as a preacher and a farmer. He died at Holland Patent, N. Y., Jan. 10, 1870, aged nearly eighty-three years.

CHICHESTER, Rt. Rev. ASHHURST TURNER GILBERT, D.D., Bishop of, a distinguished Anglican prelate, whose principal distinction was due to his long and active labors in the cause of education; born in Manchester, England; educated at the Manchester Free Grammar School and at Brasenose College, Oxford, where he won a first class honor in classics in 1809. After graduation, he was successively fellow, tutor, and, in 1822, principal of his college. Under his administration Brasenose College flourished as it had never done before. In 1836, he was made vice-chancellor (or acting president) of Oxford University, and retained the position till 1840. In 1842 he was consecrated Bishop of Chichester, and, as far as his declining years would permit, strove in that relation to promote education. He died at Chichester, Feb. 22, 1870, aged eighty-four.

COXE, WILLIAM HENRY, a remarkable Oriental scholar and professor, born in 1841, educated at the Charles House School and Balliol College, Oxford, winner of the University Sanskrit Scholarship in 1861, for four years; an officer in the department of Oriental Antiquities in the British Museum; in 1865, professor of Sanskrit in King's College, London; and in 1866, appointed assistant in the Educational Department, and professor of Sanskrit in Calcutta College, a post which he was compelled to resign, from shattered health, late in 1867, and returned to England, where he died in January, 1870, aged twenty-nine.

CRAIG, ALEXANDER J., State Superintendent of Schools for Wisconsin, and a most zealous friend of education, died in Madison, Wisconsin, July 3, 1870, aged forty-seven years.

He was born in Wallkill, Orange Co., N. Y., in 1823, and was, to a great extent, self-educated. He removed to Palmyra, Wisconsin, in 1843, and took an active part in educational, social, and moral development of the town and county in which he lived, was a town and school officer, a local magistrate, member of assembly, and, much of the time, a teacher in Palmyra. In 1854, he became principal of one of the Ward-schools in Milwaukie; in 1857, he was appointed editor of the "Wisconsin Journal of Education;" in 1860, president of the State Teachers' Association, and the same year, Assistant Superintendent of Schools for the State. Serving in this position for eight years, he was elected in the autumn of 1867 State Superintendent, and re-elected to the same office in 1869. His labors in these positions were of great and permanent value, and their result has been to place the public school system of Wisconsin in the front rank among the States of the great valley.

CRAIK, JAMES, D.D., an eminent and accomplished Scottish scholar and promoter of education, minister of St. George's Parish, Glasgow, moderator of the Assembly of the Scottish Kirk in 1863, chairman of the India mission scheme of that church, and one of the founders and principal promoters of the Normal school of the Established Church in Glasgow, for the training of missionary teachers, died in Glasgow, Aug. 20, aged sixty-eight.

CUNNINGHAM, Rev. W. M., a Presbyterian clergyman and scholar, elected in the autumn of 1869 president of Oglethorpe College, Georgia, and just after he had entered upon its duties, thrown from his carriage and so severely injured as to die on the third of March, 1870.

CUTLER, ELBRIDGE JEFFERSON, Professor of Modern Languages in Harvard College for several years past, a skilful and successful teacher, a literary critic of rare ability, and author of a small volume of beautiful poems, died at Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 27, 1870.

DALE, Rev. THOMAS, A.M., an English clergyman, scholar, poet, and professor, educated at Christ's Hospital School and Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1822, having previously published three vol-

umes of poems. For some years he received a scanty stipend as curate, lecturer or minister, and in 1828 he accepted a professorship of English language and literature in the London University, but resigned in 1830. From 1836 to 1839 he held a similar appointment in King's College, London. He had meantime become vicar of St. Bride's, Fleet street, London; in 1843, was advanced to a canonry in St. Paul's, and in 1846 exchanged the vicarage of St. Bride's for that of St. Paucias. Since 1843, though not actively engaged in teaching, he had prepared some classical textbooks, and made some contributions to literature as well as to theology. He died in London, May 15, aged seventy-three.

DICKINSON, Miss MARTHA BUSH, an eminent teacher, the founder, and for many years the principal of Lake Forest Female Seminary, near Chicago, Ill.; one of the most successful instructors, as well as one of the most large-hearted, faithful, Christian women of our country, died of disease induced by long years of severe mental labor, at Brooklyn, N. Y., Sept. 3, 1870.

DILL, SAMUEL MARCUS, D.D., an Irish Presbyterian clergyman, scholar, professor for many years past in the Theological College at Londonderry, Ireland, and in 1859 a delegate from the Irish Presbyterian General Assemby to the affiliated religious bodies in this country, died at Londonderry, of disease of the heart, May 11, 1870.

DRURY, Rev. ASA, LL.D., an eminent scholar, professor, and clergyman, born in Mass., July 26, 1802, educated at Yale College, graduating in 1829, Rector of the Hopkins Grammar School at New Haven, 1830–32; ordained in the Baptist ministry at Providence, R. I., Sept., 1834; professor of languages in Granville College, now Denison University, Ohio, 1835–36; Prof. of Greek in Cincinnati College, 1836–39; Prof. of Greek and Latin, Waterville College, now Colby University, Maine, 1839–40; returned to Cincinnati College in 1840, and remained professor there till the organization of the Western Baptist Theological Institute, at Covington, when he took charge of the classical school connected with it, being at the same time Professor of Ecclesi-

astical History and Greek Literature in the Institute. In 1850 he was principal of the High School and Superintendent of Public Schools in the city of Covington, and so continued till 1861 or 1862. In Feb., 1862, he became chaplain of the 8th regiment Ky. Vols. After the war he taught a private seminary for a year, and then removed to St. Anthony, Minn., where he was a pastor for four years, and where he died, March 18, 1870, aged sixty-eight.

DUDLEY, BENJAMIN WINSLOW, M.D., LL.D., an eminent surgeon, and surgical professor of Lexington, Ky., born in Spottsylvania Co., Va., in 1785, educated at Transylvania University, Lexington, Ky., and at the University of Penn., taking his medical degree in 1806. After four years of hospital practice, he went to Europe in 1810 for further study of his profession under the great surgeons of London and Paris, and on his return established himself, in July, 1814, in Lexington, Ky., where he at once entered upon a large surgical practice, which his great abilities enabled him to maintain during his long life. On the organization of the Transylvania Medical School, he was offered the chair of surgery. During the many years of his professorship, his popularity as an instructor and lecturer never waned. He resigned the professorship while yet in full health and vigor, and prepared several volumes of text-books and records of cases for the profession. He retired from general practice on reaching his seventieth year. He died in Lexington, Ky., Jan. 20, 1870, aged eighty-five years.

Mr. CHARLES T. BROWN, of the Geological Survey of Demarara, has found a magnificent fall on the Potaro River, hitherto unknown. The river passes over a table-land, composed of slightly inclined beds of sandstone and conglomerate, thirteen hundred and seventy-five feet above the level of the sea, and descends perpendicularly in an unbroken fall about nine hundred feet. The river is about three hundred feet wide, and its greatest depth is from ten to fifteen feet.

MARCHING POWERS OF THE PRUSSIAN TROOPS.

WITHOUT having personally witnessed the endurance of the Prussian troops in marching, often under unfavorable conditions, I could not have believed in the possibility of the accomplishment of such feats. I have known men march thirty English miles a day for three consecutive days. It must be remembered, too, that when the day's march was over the troops had to do their fire-lighting and cooking, and, indeed, had occasionally to search at distances for the food to cook. Nor must it be forgotten that the Prussian troops on the march almost invariably bivouac in the open air. They carry no tents—an excellent arrangement in fine summer weather, when it is a positive pleasure to sleep "under the beautiful stars," but one that is very trying when the weather is broken and inclement. They carry burdens on the march much heavier than the kit of our English soldiers, and in the burning dog-days they plodded sturdily forward all day long, yet I only heard of a few cases of sunstroke. I attribute this exemption to the almost invariable sobriety of the Prussian soldiery. It was but the other day—nor is the case an isolated one—that a loud clamor was raised in England because a regiment had been marched some distance in the sun with the result of several sunstrokes, one of which was fatal. Those who cried shame over the trifling Kingston march should have seen the Prussians striding steadily forward, the thermometer at eighty or eighty-five in the shade, with needle-gun, heavy knapsack, eighty rounds of ammunition, huge great-coat, camp-kettle, sword, (a useless encumbrance,) spade, water-bottle, haversack, and lots of odds and ends dangling about them, with perhaps a loaf, like a curling-stone, under the arm, and without the remotest symptom of sunstroke. But then they had not been drunk with bad beer or worse spirits the night before, and it is this over-night intoxication to which, I think, inquiry would demonstrate that cases of sunstroke on the march are mostly attributable. So steady and unfluctuating are the marching pace and endurance of the Prussian troops, that it must be a miscalculation on his

own part if a leader is out in a reckoning having these conditions for its basis. The Generals know what the men can do, and feel assured that they will do it; and this confidence enables them to devise strategical combinations in the full conviction, which is never falsified, that the troops will turn up at the appointed place true to time, and ready, too, for fighting, no matter how long and severe the road has been.—*Saint Pauls.*

THE ORIGIN OF BELLS.

IT is curious to trace the history of bells from their origin down to the present time. The first time they are mentioned in history is in the time of Moses, when we are informed, in Exodus xxviii. 32, that "a golden bell" was on the hem of the robe of Aaron, in order that "his sound shall be heard when he goeth into the holy place before the Lord." They are also mentioned in Zachariah xii. 20, as being upon the horses; and it is not improbable that Tubal Cain, the sixth in descent from Adam, "an instructor of every artificer in brass and iron," may have known something of the art of making them. The early historians inform us that the Greek warriors had small bells concealed within their shields, and when the captains went their rounds of the camp at night, each soldier was required to ring his bell in order to show that he was watchful at his post. Plutarch also mentions that nets, with small bells attached, were spread across the stream to prevent the inhabitants of Xanthus from escaping by swimming the river when the city was besieged. Church bells originated in Italy, being formed by degrees out of the cymbals and small tinkling bells used in the religious ceremonies of the East, as a means of honoring the gods. Pliny states that bells were invented long before his time. They were called *tintinnabula.* Among Christians they were first employed to call together religious congregations, for which purpose runners had been employed before. Although introduced in the fourth century, it was not until the sixth century that they

were suspended on the roof of the church in a frame. The hours of the day were first ordered to be struck by Pope Sebastian in 1665, to announce to the people the time for singing and praying.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?

II.

IF there needs any evidence of the rude, undeveloped character of our education, we have it in the fact that the comparative worths of different kinds of knowledge have been as yet scarcely even discussed—much less discussed in a methodic way with definite results. Not only is it that no standard of relative values has yet been agreed upon; but the existence of any such standard has not been conceived in any clear manner. And not only is it that the existence of any such standard has not been clearly conceived; but the need for it seems to have been scarcely even felt. Men read books on this topic, and attend lectures on that; decide that their children shall be instructed in these branches of knowledge, and shall not be instructed in those; and all under the guidance of mere custom, or liking, or prejudice; without ever considering the enormous importance of determining in some rational way what things are really most worth learning. It is true that in all circles we have occasional remarks on the importance of this or the other order of information. But whether the degree of its importance justifies the expenditure of the time needed to acquire it; and whether there are not things of more importance to which the time might be better devoted; are queries which, if raised at all, are disposed of quite summarily, according to personal predilections. It is true, also, that from time to time, we hear revived the standing controversy respecting the comparative merits of classics and mathematics. Not only, however, is this controversy carried on in an empirical manner, with no reference to an ascertained criterion; but the question at issue is totally insignificant when compared

with the general question of which it is part. To suppose that deciding whether a mathematical or a classical education is the best, is deciding what is the proper *curriculum*, is much the same thing as to suppose that the whole of dietetics lies in determining whether or not bread is more nutritive than potatoes!

The question which we contend is of such transcendent moment, is, not whether such or such knowledge is of worth, but what is its *relative* worth? When they have named certain advantages which a given course of study has secured them, persons are apt to assume that they have justified themselves: quite forgetting that the adequateness of the advantages is the point to be judged. There is, perhaps, not a subject to which men devote attention that has not *some* value. A year diligently spent in getting up heraldry, would very possibly give a little further insight into ancient manners and morals, and into the origin of names. Any one who should learn the distances between all the towns in England, might, in the course of his life, find one or two of the thousand facts he had acquired of some slight service when arranging a journey. Gathering together all the small gossip of a country, profitless occupation as it would be, might yet occasionally help to establish some useful fact—say, a good example of hereditary transmission. But in these cases, every one would admit that there was no proportion between the required labor and the probable benefit. No one would tolerate the proposal to devote some years of a boy's time to getting such information, at the cost of much more valuable information which he might else have got. And if here the test of relative value is appealed to and held conclusive, then should it be appealed to and held conclusive throughout. Had we time to master all subjects we need not be particular. To quote the old song:

> Could a man be secure
> That his days would endure
> As of old, for a thousand long years,
> What things might he know!
> What deeds might he do!
> And all without hurry or care.

"But we that have but span-long lives" must ever bear in

mind our limited time for acquisition. And remembering how narrowly this time is limited, not only by the shortness of life, but also still more by the business of life, we ought to be especially solicitous to employ what time we have to the greatest advantage. Before devoting years to some subject which fashion or fancy suggests, it is surely wise to weigh with great care the worth of the results, as compared with the worth of various alternative results which the same years might bring if otherwise applied.

In education, then, this is the question of questions, which it is high time we discussed in some methodic way. The first in importance, though the last to be considered, is the problem—how to decide among the conflicting claims of various subjects on our attention. Before there can be a rational *curriculum*, we must settle which things it most concerns us to know; or, to use a word of Bacon's, now unfortunately obsolete—we must determine the relative values of knowledges.

To this end, a measure of value is the first requisite. And happily, respecting the true measure of value, as expressed in general terms, there can be no dispute. Every one in contending for the worth of any particular order of information, does so by showing its bearing upon some part of life. In reply to the question, "Of what use is it?" the mathematician, linguist, naturalist, or philosopher, explains the way in which his learning beneficially influences action—saves from evil or secures good—conduces to happiness. When the teacher of writing has pointed out how great an aid writing is to success in business—that is, to the obtainment of sustenance—that is, to satisfactory living; he is held to have proved his case. And when the collector of dead facts (say a numismatist) fails to make clear any appreciable effects which these facts can produce on human welfare, he is obliged to admit that they are comparatively valueless. All then, either directly or by implication, appeal to this as the ultimate test.

How to live?—that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. The general problem which comprehends every special problem is—the right ruling of conduct in all

directions under all circumstances. In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others—how to live completely? And this being the great thing needful for us to learn, is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of any educational course is, to judge in what degree it discharges such function.

This test, never used in its entirety, but rarely even partially used, and used then in a vague, half conscious way, has to be applied consciously, methodically, and throughout all cases. It behoves us to set before ourselves, and ever to keep clearly in view, complete living as the end to be achieved; so that in bringing up our children we may choose subjects and methods of instruction, with deliberate reference to this end. Not only ought we to cease from the mere unthinking adoption of the current fashion in education, which has no better warrant than any other fashion; but we must also rise above that rude, empirical style of judging displayed by those more intelligent people who do bestow some care in overseeing the cultivation of their children's minds. It must not suffice simply to *think* that such or such information will be useful in after life, or that this kind of knowledge is of more practical value than that; but we must seek out some process of estimating their respective values, so that as far as possible we may positively *know* which are most deserving of attention.

Doubtless the task is difficult—perhaps never to be more than approximately achieved. But, considering the vastness of the interests at stake, its difficulty is no reason for pusillanimously passing it by; but rather for devoting every energy to its mastery. And if we only proceed systematically, we may very soon get at results of no small moment.—*Herbert Spencer.*

ABOUT CORAL.

THE Greeks named coral the "daughter of the sea;" and Theophrastus reckons it among the precious stones. Pliny tells us that coral was no less esteemed in India than were pearls in Rome, "it being the prevailing taste in each nation respectively that constitutes the value of things," he observes. "Solimus informs us," so he continues, "that Zoaraster attributed certain mysterious properties to coral; hence it is that they equally value it as an ornament and as an object of devotion."

In Persia, China, and Japan, coral was prized almost as much as gold. The Gauls in ancient times were accustomed to ornament their armor with this lovely product of the Gallic and Italian seas; but finding the value of it as an article of exportation, it soon became comparatively rare in the countries where it first abounded.

Pliny describes coral as a marine plant, bearing crimson berries; nor can we wonder that he should have been led into this mistake when we find the error repeated almost down to our own times. In Johnson's *Dictionary* is the following definition: "Coral—a plant of as great hardness and stony nature while growing in the water as it is after long exposure to the air."

Coming down to the mediæval age, the first mention we have of coral is in the inventory of Alianore de Bohun, where a paternoster of coral with gilded guadier, and three branches of coral, are among the list of valuables. Quite as many superstitious beliefs were then attached to this supposed submarine plant as in a more remote period. Reginald Scot, in his *Discoverie of Witchcraft*, tells us that "the coral preserveth such as wear it from fascination or bewitching, and in this respect they are hanged about children's necks." Plat, in his *Jewel House of Nature*, repeats the same story, adding that it preserves from the falling sickness. "It hath also some special sympathy with nature," he continues, "for the best coral being worn about the neck will turn pale and wan if the party that wears it be sick, and comes to its former color again as they recover health."

In 1700, Tournefort described coral as a plant; and Reau-

mur declared it as his opinion, but slightly differing from former naturalists, that it was the stony product of marine plants. The Count di Marsigli went a step further, and not only asserted the vegetable nature of coral, but declared that he had seen its flowers! In his work, *La Physique de la Mer*, he gives a representation of these sea blossoms, thus setting the question at rest forever, as he supposed. Others, however, were not quite so well satisfied; and, 1723, Jean Andre de Peyssonel, a student of medicine and natural history, was deputed by the French Academie des Sciences to make further observations in elucidation of this interesting subject. He began his examinations first in the neighborhood of Marseilles, and continued them on the north coast of Africa. At last, after long, exact and delicate observation, he came to the conclusion that the Count di Marsigli's flowers were animals, and demonstrated that the coral was no plant but the product of a colony of polype. Let him describe his experiment in his own words:

"I put the flower of the coral in vases full of sea-water, and I saw that what had been taken for the flower of this pretended plant was, in truth, only an insect like a little sea-nettle or polype. I had the pleasure of seeing move the claws or feet of the creature; and having put the vase full of water which contained the coral in a gentle heat over the fire, all the small insects seemed to expand. The polype extended his feet, and formed what M. di Marsigli and I had taken for the petals of a flower. The calyx of this pretended flower, in short, was the animal which advanced and issued out of its shell."

But after all Peyssonel's labors, he received neither reward nor thanks for his discovery; it was ridiculed by Reaumur and Bernard de Jussieu, as something quite unworthy of credit; and poor Peyssonel, meeting with nothing but skepticism and neglect—for his papers were not even printed—in return for his laborious investigations, abandoned the subject in disgust, and departed for the Antilles in the capacity of a naval surgeon. Peyssonel was allowed to continue in the obscurity to which he had retired; but many years had not passed before both Reaumur and De Jussieu were obliged to retract their former opinion, and to acknowledge that after all Peyssonel's theory was correct.—*The Argosy.*

THE UNIVERSITY OF PEKING.

THE revelations made by Mr. J. Ross Browne, in an article about the University of Peking, are well calculated to make a sensation in all educational circles. It would appear from his statements that this great University, which has given so much delight to the Christians of this part of the world, and which was to do such wonders for the Chinese, is, if not a grand humbug, at least a myth—an institution on paper. Its alleged establishment seems to have been one of the many ingenious artifices by which Chinese progress was made apparent in the United States. "Glowing tributes were paid to this institution at the New York and Boston banquets. The press, from time to time, furnished the public with interesting data in regard to its organization and progress. The Chinese rulers were highly praised for their intelligence and liberality. Many of these enthusiastic tributes I read while in Peking. Need I say that I read them with profound amazement? 1st. Because, after a diligent search of several months, I was unable to find any such institution in Peking. 2d. Because each one of the professors admitted to me that there was no such institution in Peking. 3d. Because Mr. Hart furnished me with a paper written by himself, in which he admitted that the scheme for the University of Peking had never been carried into practical effect, but on account of the opposition of the Chinese it had, so to speak, collapsed." But if the grand scheme collapsed, not so did the learned and accomplished gentlemen who composed the Faculty. Indeed, it seems that the professors, with a devotion to self-interest none the less deserving of praise because of its rarity, consented, willingly and unreservedly, not only to accept the fame and honor connected with their positions, but to draw, at the appointed times, the full amount of their salaries. Nor did their zeal in the good cause of educating the heathen Chinese end here. For instance, the professor of mathematics, as the pupils (?) were not sufficiently advanced to require his presence at Peking, resided at Shanghai, where he practised medicine, thus educating the darkened

understandings of the benighted Shanghaians to a proper appreciation of the power of modern science, as well as adding enough to his pittance of a salary ($4,000) to keep starvation from the door. But let it not be supposed that these gentlemen were altogether free from labor. Far from it. New York tactics have penetrated the far-off regions of the East. Professors, as well as political appointees, are paid for one thing and do another. There were several objects in view in getting up and parading before the world this scheme for a grand university. "The Chinese did not want it; but, in their usual temporizing way, they evaded a direct refusal when the matter was pressed upon them, and even went so far as to pretend to favor it. Those who understand them, know perfectly well that such an institution is the last thing they would sincerely encourage. Nobody knew this better than the originator of the plan, but he had ulterior objects in view. Public sentiment had to be created in the United States and Europe. The Embassy to the West must be sustained. Chinese intelligence and enterprise must be made manifest. On the part of the Chinese they had a battle to fight against foreign improvements, and the best thing they could do was to pay foreigners to fight it for them. They pursued the policy of Cortez in Mexico. Since they could not get rid of foreigners by force, they could pretend to accede to their demands, and, meantime, gain time and strength to resist them more effectually by transferring diplomatic relations from Peking to the home governments. They subsidized foreigners (in other words, the enemy), and set them to work against foreigners. Mr. Hart received a princely salary as Commissioner of the Imperial Maratime Customs. The Customs system had been forced upon them, and they were adroit enough to make it work in their interest, since they had to pay for it. So Mr. Hart hired a corps of writers to write up the "policy of conciliation" in the United States and Europe; to deprecate the gunboat or throat policy; to demonstrate the excellence of Chinese civilization; to ask that this ancient empire should be allowed to work out its own destiny in its own way. This professional corps formed the faculty of the so-called University of Peking. It was admirably drilled, and the members worked conscientiously for their pay."

VIRTUES OF BORAX.

IT may not be generally known how very valuable borax is in various purposes of household use. We find it the very best cockroach exterminator yet discovered. One half-pound costing but fifty cents, has completely cleared a large house formerly swarming with them, so that the appearance of one in a month is quite a novelty. The various exterminating powders puffed and advertised have been found not fully effective, tending rather to make the roaches crazy than to kill them. There is something peculiar, either in the smell or touch of borax, which is certain death to them. They will flee in terror from it, and never appear again where it has once been placed. It is also a great advantage that borax is perfectly harmless to human beings, hence no danger from poisoning. It is also valuable for laundry purposes. The washerwomen of Holland and Belgium, so proverbially clean, and who get their linen so beautifully white, use refined borax as washing-powder instead of soda, in the proportion of a large handful of borax powder to ten gallons of water. They save soap nearly one half. All the large washing establishments adopt the same mode. For laces, cambrics, etc., an extra quantity of the powder is used; and for crinolines (requiring to be made stiff) a stronger solution is necessary. Borax, being a neutral salt, does not in the slightest degree injure the texture of linen. Its effect is to soften the hardest water, and therefore it should be kept on the toilet-table. As a way of cleaning the hair, nothing is better than a solution of borax in water. It leaves the scalp in a most cleanly condition, and the hair is just sufficiently stiffened to retain its place. This stiffness, however, can be readily removed if objectionable, by washing with water. Borax is also an excellent dentifrice; dissolved in water, it is one of the best tooth-washes. In hot countries it is used, in combination with tartaric acid and bicarbonate of soda, as a cooling beverage. —*Manufacturer and Builder.*

A writer on school discipline says, "Without a liberal use of the rod, it is impossible to make boys smart."

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW YORK CITY.—From the report of Supt. Henry Kiddle, we learn that the average attendance at the public schools, including evening schools, for the year ending Dec. 31, 1870, was 102,608; whole number taught during the year, 238,112. In addition to these, 1,652 pupils were taught at the Normal schools, the average attendance being 1,214. A comparison of these statistics with those presented at the close of 1860, shows that the average attendance of pupils has increased during the intervening ten years, nearly 54 per cent. There were employed in the various schools 2,683 teachers, of whom 363 were males, and 2,320 females. The average number of pupils per teacher, was 38. Allowing 100 cubic feet of space for each pupil in the Grammar schools, and 80 in the Primary schools, there were accommodations for 99,437, an excess over the average attendance at the day schools of 14,147. The examinations held during the second half of the year, show that the instruction was excellent in 689 classes; good in 761; fair in 177; indifferent in 16; and bad in 2. It was, accordingly, seriously defective in 11⅝ per cent. of the whole. In discipline and instruction, the Girls' Grammar schools were considerably superior to any of the other classes of schools, and the Colored schools inferior to all others. Taken as a whole, the schools appear better in point of discipline than in respect to any of the branches of instruction. The number of pupils expelled for misconduct from the schools, was 287, of whom 247 were pupils of the Boys' Grammar schools. German and French are taught in some of the schools, but very little is accomplished. The course of instruction, for German, recently adopted will, however, when put in operation, regulate and systematize the teaching of this branch in the schools. Much space in the report is devoted to discussing the results of the examinations, and the questions of school discipline, moral instruction, etc.

BROOKLYN, N. Y.—The number of licensed teachers employed during the school year is 799; the number of children over five and under twenty-one years of age living in the city is 136,799; number of free schools, 46; departments, 99; number of private schools, 220; number of pupils over five and under twenty-one years of age, attending private schools, 25,000; attending public schools, 72,286; average daily attendance at public schools, 35,229. There are 41 school houses in the city. The payment of teachers during the year amounted to $499,151.88; and, $28,296.93

were expended in books for pupils. The total expense, including the cost of school apparatus, building sites, building expenses, rent, repairs, fuel, janitors, officers' salaries and printing, was $947,411.99. The total amount of money received from all sources for the support of the county town schools, $56,775.12. The number of pupils, 3,101; of teachers, 35; and of private schools, 15.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.—There are in this city 380 schools, 1,515 teachers, of whom only 80 are males, and 133,-839 registered pupils. The school property is valued at $3,022,280. The amount expended for school purposes last year was $1,297,744.63. The average salary of male teachers per month is $135.98, and of female, $43.61.

CINCINNATI, OHIO.—The forty-first annual report of the Board of Education, being for the year ending June 30, 1870, shows the following items: The total expenditure for teachers' salaries was $368,312.53. The schools are divided into twenty districts, two intermediate and two high schools. The number of different pupils registered, 24,951; the number in school at the close of the year, 18,816; the average number belonging, 20,023; average attendance, 19,-140; the per cent. of attendance on number of pupils registered, 78; per cent. on average number belonging, 95.6; the average number of pupils per teacher, 45.6; average attendance per teacher, 43.6; the increase in average number belonging in all the schools, 43.2. The average number of teachers employed, 450. The cost of tuition per pupil in al the schools, on the number enrolled, $13.08; on the average number belonging, $17.85; on the average daily attendance, $18.67. In addition to the last-mentioned expense, special instruction in music costs 45 cents per pupil; in drawing, 24 cents; and in gymnastics, 9 cents. In the eight night schools the average number of teachers was 45; amount paid the teachers, $8,312.07. The number enrolled in night schools was 2,890; average attendance, 1,411; per cent. of attendance on enrollment, 48.8. The public library contains 22,537 volumes, and has 6,773 readers. In the district schools 21.7 per cent. of the pupils enrolled remained in school less than four months; 40.3 per cent. less than six months; 48.5 per cent. less than eight months; 64.5 per cent. less than ten months; and 35.5 per cent. through the year. More pupils leave school at the age of six years than at any other age. The statistics of the German department are full of interest. They show that almost the entire growth of the schools is due to this department, the number of children who study German having increased nearly one hundred and twenty per cent. in ten years. Nearly half of

the pupils now registered receive instruction in German. Cincinnati has the best organized and conducted German department in the United States, but whether this fact is to its credit or advantage, is a question for consideration.

MEMPHIS, TENN.—The annual report of the Board of Education for 1869–70, is at hand. The schools have, during the past year, so increased in efficiency and in the number of pupils, that there is much difficulty in accommodating all who apply for admission. The total scholastic population, white and colored, is 10,667; the average number belonging in white schools, 1,659; colored schools, 841; per cent. of attendance in white schools, 87.83; colored, 85.3. Fifty-one schools were supported at an expense of $54,027, an average for each school of $1,059, which is a saving of 33 per cent. Average cost of each pupil, $21.65. The present indebtedness of the Board is $30,569.25.

NEW JERSEY.—The annual meeting of the STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was held in Camden during the last week in December—W. A. Breckenridge, of Newark, presiding. The subject of compulsory attendance was taken up by Prof. Apgar, who thought the time would come when it would be necessary to enact laws making it obligatory upon parents to send their children to school. Other subjects presented were: "Duties and responsibilities of parents and teachers;" "The defects of the present school system and their remedy;" "Good order in school;" "Drawing as an educator;" "Kinder Garten." These topics show the range of discussion at this important meeting. On motion of Mr. Sears, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That in the judgment of this Association, it is no less the interest than the duty of the State of New Jersey to provide, by legislative enactment, for the free education of all the children of the State.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: *President*—Mr. George B. Sears, of Essex county. *First Vice-President*—Miss S. M. Riley, of Middlesex. *Second Vice-President*—Mr. Samuel Freeman, of Warren. *Recording Secretary*—Mr. William Mulligan, of Gloucester. *Corresponding Secretary*—Miss Clara J. Armstrong, of Camden. *Treasurer*—Mr. William N. Barringer, of Essex. The next meeting of the Association will be held in Newark.

GOV. RANDOLPH, in his Message to the Legislature, says:

Under our system of public schools there have been enrolled during the year 1870, 161,683 scholars, or nearly one-fifth of the entire population of the State. The cost of maintaining these institutions has been $1,664,659.03. The

value of school property in the State is $3,677,442. The total number of children in the State, between the ages of five and eighteen, is 258,227. The increase in their attendance at public schools is 8,888 for the year. The total number of children attending private schools is 32,447; which, added to the number attending public schools, makes an aggregate of 194,130, or nearly four-fifths of all the children of the State between the ages of five and eighteen. We may fairly claim that the education of youth is almost universal within our borders.

MISCELLANEA.

FEMALE EDUCATION.—A Massachusetts lady has, by her will, left over $300,000 for the establishment of a college for the higher education of young women, so as to afford privileges equal, in all respects, to those enjoyed by young men. One-half the bequest may be invested in buildings and grounds, and the other half is to be invested as a permanent fund, the interest of which is to be used for paying the salaries of teachers, and procuring a library and apparatus. The testatrix, in her will, expresses the opinion that, by a higher and more thoroughly Christian education of young women, their wrongs will be redressed, their wages adjusted, their weight of influence in reforming the evils of society greatly increased, and that their power for good as teachers, as writers, as mothers, and as members of society, will be incalculably enlarged.

THE Trustees of the University of Vermont report that they have prepared a spacious and well-appointed Chemical Laboratory, with tables for twenty students. This is furnished with all the modern appliances and conveniences, the old laboratory being appropriated to the classes engaged in assaying ores. Instruction in these branches is furnished for about one-fifth the cost of tuition in several of the laboratories of the country.

LALANDE, the French astronomer, often ate caterpillars and spiders, affirming that the former tasted like almonds and the latter like walnuts.

THERE is no other spoken language so cheap and expressive by telegraph as the English. So the electric wires are becoming teachers of our mother tongue in foreign countries. The same amount of information can be transmitted

in fewer English words than French, German, Italian, or any other European language. In Germany, and Holland especially, it is coming to be a common thing to see telegrams in English, to save expense and insure precision.

SOME novel and valuable facts concerning Dickens' Works we glean from a recent French Review. Few of our readers probably know that the illustrious author wrote books entitled, "The Magazine of Antiquities," "Paris and London in 1793," "The Abyss," and "The Mystery of Edwin Troost." The latter is familiarily called by the reviewer, "The Mystery of Edwin," showing that it must have been his intimate, first-name-employing acquaintance with Dickens' characters which caused him to forget their cognomens. The correct name of "miss Hexam" is, we learn, "Lirrie," and Mr. Dickens' residence was at "Gats' Hill."

THE young man who "gets up" the "Educational Bulletin"—"published periodically," at *uncertain* periods—is elated at having found a typographical error in our Monthly for November, 1870. He finds "pirates," in place of *pyrites*. We never attempt to excuse imperfect proof-reading, and we have not space to reciprocate by enumerating the errors in the said "Bulletin." The "Bulletineer" alludes to an "unacknowledged extract from 'Our Steele's Philosophy.'" We believe our readers understand our Scientific Notes to be *selected*. When our editor and Mr. Steele chance to glean from the same fields—what then?

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

WE have been accustomed to look with about equal favor on Bowdler's "Family" Shakespeare and Webster's "Revision" of the English Bible. Believing, as we do, that the dramatic works of the great poet are thoroughly sweet and salutary in their moral intention and scope, we have been not a little indignant at the excision and refining which certain of his plays have undergone at the hands of the expurgators. Could Shakespeare have foreseen the garbled shape in which they have been twice presented to the eyes of this generation, he would have strangled his brain-children at their birth, rather than have such inanities go down to posterity, bearing the name of the man who wrote Hamlet and the Tempest. If an editor chooses to

omit certain of Shakespeare's comedies, very well; this is, in comparison, a trifling offence; but let him keep his hands off from the truthful, life-like pictures of him who but "held the mirror up to nature," and showed the hearts of men as they were. We hold that there is a false and over-fastidious delicacy, which, besides annoying all untainted souls, suggests some impairment of the moral health, some uneasy brooding over matters which a robust virtue sees no occasion to trouble itself with. The man, or the mature youth, who finds evil in one of Shakespeare's dramas, *taken as a whole*, has brought with him to this author the taint and leprosy of grossness.

Yet, sure as we are that all really pure minds are free from that ticklish queasiness which finds evil where evil was not meant, we are ready to admit that many of Shakespeare's plays are quite unsuited to class use; and we praise Mr. Hudson's purpose in selecting and editing the seven plays in this volume [1] [As You Like It, Merchant of Venice, Twelfth Night, the two parts of King Henry the Fourth, Julius Cæsar, and Hamlet.] And the accomplishment answers well to the purpose. Himself a thorough Shakespearean scholar, and having had large experience in teaching others, in the class-room as well as from the lecturer's desk, to understand and appreciate this greatest English classic, he is eminently fitted for just the task he has here performed. The introductions are full and the notes helpful, while they do not disgust the student, as in some editions, by thrusting upon him explanations of things simple and self-evident. Both show that Mr. Hudson's studies in Shakespeare did not end with the publication of his edition of the plays. As to the changes made in the text, they are suppressions merely—never tampering with the original wording.

Mr. Hudson's advice as to the method of teaching Shakespeare is well worthy of attention. He holds that "some care may well be taken against pushing the grammatical and linguistic part so far as to obstruct the proper virtue of his pages." His remarks on this head, too extended to bear citation here, we heartily approve; while at the same time we commend the selecting of some one play to be the object or occasion of minute and pains-taking study, with reference to forms, constructions, etymology, figures, rhythm, and whatever concerns the history of so much of the English speech as is set forth in it. For such use there is nothing

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1 PLAYS OF SHAKESPEARE, selected and prepared for use in Schools, Clubs, Classes, and Families. With Introductions and Notes. By the Rev. HENRY N. HUDSON. Vol. I. Boston: Ginn Brothers & Co., 1870.

better than *Julius Cæsar* in Craik's edition. We hope that both this and Hudson's work may find general introduction, in schools not only, but in clubs and households. And we say this, remembering what a wonderful mastery over our (to foreigners) difficult language, was won by the great Hungarian who a few years ago astonished us by his eloquence. If, in one short year, these two English books, the Bible and Shakespeare, could give him such copiousness and vigor of expression, we, who speak the tongue of Shakespeare, have a right to look for large and varied benefits from similar communion. These two classics should have place in every high school and college.

The mechanical appearance of the book is entirely satisfactory. A second volume is to follow before long.

THE writings of Hamilton, erudite and valuable as they are, yet present such an array of *disjecta membra*, that it is no slight labor for any one to collect from them, and organize, his system of philosophy. To the novice in such studies it must be well-nigh impossible. That he had a well defined system is evident enough, but one is obliged to seek it through a mass of lectures, review articles and notes; and even at the end may find himself unable to construct it. Prof. Murray has, in our opinion, put both the teachers and students of Metaphysics under obligation by his conscientious and apparently successful reduction of the scattered fragments of the great Scotchman's scheme.[2] In 257 pages he has given us a clear and connected exhibition of his author's psychology *in his own words*. We have the *ipsissima verba* of the master, not a dilution or misconception of his ideas, as they have filtered through another's brain. Prof. Murray was a pupil of Hamilton, and so the better qualified to formulate his system. Whoever reads this compend will find himself stimulated to explore the original placers from which its various sections have been gathered. President McCosh, of Princeton, though failing to accept all of the teachings of the book, yet introduces it with a word of hearty commendation.

The printer has done his part well; but as to the binder, his taste seems to us unworthy of praise.

MESSRS. WILSON, HINKLE & CO., Cincinnati, have sent us early copies of "The Eclectic Series of Geographies, embracing a Mathematical, Physical and Political Description of the Earth; with Lessons

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[2] OUTLINE OF SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON'S PHILOSOPHY. A Text-Book for Students. By the Rev. J. C. CLARK MURRAY, Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy, Queen's University, Canada. Boston: Gould & Lincoln, 1870.

on Map-drawing. By A. Von Steinwher & D. G. Brinton." A praiseworthy attempt has been made in this series to supply our schools with philosophical text-books on Geography. A cursory examination assures us that the books have many excellent points, and that, if merit is to decide, they will quickly take the place of certain Geographies which are said to have a "national" demand. The importance of the subject requires a more extended notice than we can now give. We shall place the books in the hands of a competent reviewer, and report as early as possible.

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MR. STEIGER has recently published "Dr. Baskerville's Practical Text-Book of the English Language, re-written and adapted for use in America, by Gustavus Fischer." We infer that there is not much of Baskerville in the book as it now appears. And we hope that some competent reviewer will give it a severe examination. Prof. Fischer has been severe in many of his reviews, and, since he has taken to book-making, he deserves no mercy, and can expect none.

MESSRS. J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. have placed the American people under additional obligations to them and to Dr. Cutter by publishing the "New Analytic Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene, Human and Comparative, for Colleges, Academies and Families, by Calvin Cutter, M.D." Dr. Cutter and his works are too well known to require discussion.

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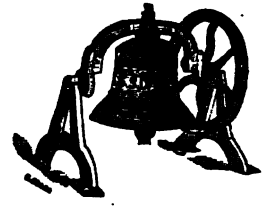

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Chart II. contains: Diagram 7. A Leaf—Leaf of large convovulus, showing apex, base, margin, petiole, midrib, venation. Diagram 8. Leaves—Peltate, leaf of Indian cress, 2-1; Saggitate, arrow-head, 2-1; Cordate; Hastate. Diagram 9. Leaves—Lanceolate, plantain, 2-1; Lanceolate-serrate, laurel, 2-1; Spathulate, daisy, 2-1; Linear, Scotch fir, 2-1; Ovate, chickweed, 6-1; Oblong, scabious, 2-1; Ligulate, daffodil, 2-1. Diagram 10. Leaves—Lobate, sycamore, n. s.; Digitate, monks-hood, n. s.; Digitate, hellebore, n. s.; Palmate, fingered saxifrage, 4-1. Diagram 11. Leaves—Truncate, tulip tree, 2-1; Lyrate, turnip, n, s.; Runcinate, dandelion, n. s. Diagram 12. Leaves—Interruptedly pinnate, meadow sweet, n. s. Pinnate, common ash, 1½-1; Bipinnate; Bipinnatifid, poppy, 2-1. Size, 3½ by 4 ft.

Chart III. contains: Diagram 13. Leaves—Whorl, goose-grass, 4-1; Perfoliate, hares-ear, 4-1; Connate, perfoliate honeysuckle, 3-1. Diagram 14. Leaves—Branch of garden pea, 2-1; Branch of yellow vetchling, 2-1; Trifoliate, wood sorrel, 3-1; Cinquefoil; Trifoliate, Dutch clover, 4-1. Diagram 15. Flowers—Periwinkle; Calyx and Corolla; open corolla and stamens, 4-1; Brush-like pistil, 10-1; potato; bell flower. Diagram 16. Flowers—Personate corolla of snap-dragon, 4-1; stamens, 8-1; Labiate corolla of salvia. Diagram 17. Flowers—Spurred corolla of common Indian cress, 4-1; Trifid petals of clarkia, 4-1. Diagram 18 Poppies—Red poppy; Capsule, 6-1; Capsule of long smooth-headed poppy, 6-1; Capsule of white or opium poppy, 3-1. Size, 3½ ft. by 4 ft.

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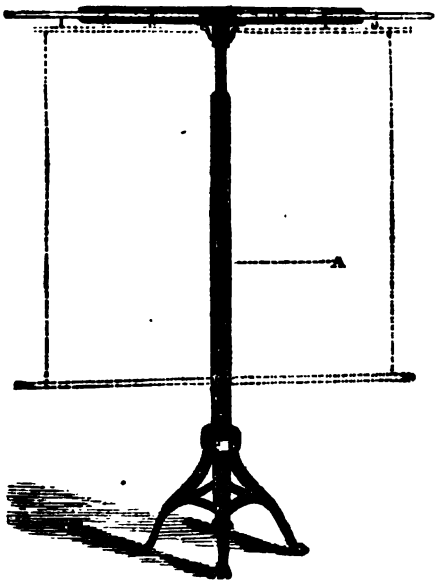

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AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

MARCH, 1871.

A DUTCHMAN'S DIFFICULTIES WITH THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

STEVEN VAN BRAMMELENDAM was a good natured, scholarly young Dutchman. He knew something of Latin and Greek, was familiar with French and German, and had little difficulty in understanding the English *Grammar*. He could pronounce the English very well, having received, when a boy, a few lessons from an English tutor. His available stock of English words was rather scanty; but he never hesitated on that account. When he wanted a word, he would simply take a Dutch or a Latin word, give it somewhat of an English turn, and launch it forth with a confidence which often made us laugh heartily. Steven took everything in good humor: and when we explained to him the oddity of his phrase, he would laugh as heartily as any of us.

Being informed of his intention of arriving on the 14th, I kept a look-out for him all that day at my office in Cornhill. I purposed to take him at once to our house at Chelsea. Steven, however, did not appear till the forenoon of the next day; and then, after delivering his letter of introduction, he told me, with an air of perplexity, that he had passed the

night at some inn in the neighborhood,—and that he had left his luggage there, but could not find the place again, being quite bewildered with the countless number of streets and lanes, each of which was "as full with people, carriages, and 'busses, as an egg is with meat." But let me tell you his story as he told it to us that same evening over our tea at Chelsea.

Owing to some difficulty about his luggage at the custom-house, Steven could not leave Dover before the last train, which arrived at London Bridge at 10.30 P. M. He took a cab, and drove up to my office at Cornhill. Of course he found it locked. He rang the bell—rang again—rang a third time, but could get no answer. No wonder, indeed, for good Mrs. Jenkins, our housekeeper, was then enjoying the luxury of her first sleep. Nor was she much pleased at being roused out of it by a tremendous peal that rang through the premises as if the police had come to tell her that the whole neighborhood was on fire. She put on her gown, or, to use an expression of Steven's, "flung herself into her frock" as quickly as she could, and, frantic with excitement, hurried up-stairs, candle in hand, to ascertain the cause of the disturbance, the like of which had not occurred in her long housekeeping experience. No sooner had she opened the door, than Steven, presenting his letter of introduction, said, "Is my gentleman, Dobson, to house?"

"Pray, sir, I cannot read," answered Mrs. Jenkins, returning the letter.

"Is my gentleman, Dobson, to house?" Steven repeated.

"Sir?"

"Yes, Sir Dobson."

"What about Sir Dobson?"

"Is he to house?"

"What house? I don't understand you."

"Give this letter to your gentleman," said Steven, in the kindest tone he could assume.

"There are no gentlemen here," answered Mrs. Jenkins, rather indignantly; "call to-morrow at ten;" and the door was shut upon the benighted Brammelendam.

The cabman now came to the rescue. With some difficulty, he succeeded in making Steven understand that

he would have to take a bed at a *hinn* for the night. Then, after having driven some four or five streets, he put him down at the entrance to a gin-palace, whose splendid lanterns promised "chops, steaks, and well-air'd beds" to travelers. The landlord, observing two big portmanteaus and a hat-box on the top of the cab, had no objection, of course, to take in the late visitor.

"What am I guilty to you?" Steven said to cabby, pulling out his purse.

"Guilty!" cabby repeated with a smile; "don't know, unless you run away without paying me."

Steven understood the word "paying."

"Yes, I will pay the load. How much?"

"Half-a-crown."

"What is half-a-crown?"

"Why, it's two-and-six."

"Frightful!" Steven exclaimed. "Twent-six shilling! only for riding me such a short end!"

Cabby, who fortunately was one of the better stamp, could not help laughing at this mistake, which certainly was something out of the common. After some further explanation, Steven, much to his satisfaction saw Jehu off with two shillings and sixpence.

After having seen his luggage taken up to his bed-room, Steven entered the taproom, where twelve boxes were lined off, six on each side.

"Where is the coffee-room?" asked Steven.

"This is the coffee-room," the landlord replied.

"What—this?" Steven exclaimed. "This is a place for horses. There is precisely room here for twelve horses. Do you put men into horse-stables in this country?"

The landlord gave no reply. Steven, perceiving that no choice was left to him, took a seat in one of the "horse-stables," and ordered his supper.

"Give me a butterham, with flesh, and a half-bottle wine."

"No bread?" the landlord asked.

"Natural," Steven replied, not knowing the English expression "*of course.*"

The landlord smiled, and shook his head. He brought in some butter and a few slices of ham.

"Which wine do you take, sir—sherry or port?"

"None of both. Give me *Bordeaux*."

"Don't know that wine," the landlord replied, shrugging his shoulders.

"I aim at *red* wine."

"Why, that's port."

"No port; port is too heady to me."

"Perhaps you mean French wine?"

"Mean French wine!" Steven exclaimed. "No; French wine is not mean. It is drunk by kings and princes. Pour me a glass."

While the landlord fetched a bottle of claret, Steven murmured within himself, "Those conceited Englishmen! Everything which is not English is mean in their estimation."

"Where is the butterham?" Steven asked, while the landlord put down the bottle.

"Why, it is before you," the landlord replied, pointing to the plates. "This is the butter, and this is the ham."

Steven burst out laughing.

"Oh, yes, natural!" he said. "This is butter *and* ham; but I ordered a butterham. I aim at bread for smearing the butter upon it."

With such difficulties as these Steven struggled, till he got his wants supplied, and thought of retiring for the night. Not being in the habit of shaving himself, he thought it might be as well to order a barber for the next morning. Remembering that the name of the instrument which barbers use is called a razor, he said to the landlord, "Can I be razed to-morrow?"

"Raised!" the landlord repeated, smiling; "yes, to be sure you can."

"Will you, then, send up a man to raze me?"

"I will raise you myself."

"Ah, very well. At nine o'clock if you please."

The next morning, punctual to time, the landlord knocked at Steven's door.

"Within!" Steven cried, and the landlord entered.

"Where is your knife?" Steven asked.

"My knife? For what?"

"Well, to raze me."

"Why, you *are* raised."

"I am *not* razed. You must raze me with a knife along my visage."

With these words Steven passed his hand to and fro over his chin to imitate the operation of shaving.

"Oh, I see," the landlord cried in a fit of laughter, "you want to be shaved! But I am not a barber, sir; you must go to a shaving shop."

"Where is a shaving shop?" Steven asked.

The landlord took him to the window, and pointing to a street on the opposite side, said something about turning to the right, and then to the left, and about an outstanding pole, and a brass plate, and told him to look out for the word *shaving*.

Steven understood scarcely a word of what was said; but from the direction in which the landlord pointed, he concluded that he had to walk up the indicated street. Before leaving the inn, however, he was careful to note down the name of its owner, the number of the house, and the name of the street.

He walked along, looking carefully to the right and left, but no shaving place could he see. At length, after having turned down half a dozen streets, he noticed on a window the inscription: "Savings Bank."

"Ah," he said to himself, "this is it. Here is a bank upon which people are placed to be saved."

It did not escape his notice that the landlord had spoken of *shaving*, and not of *saving*, but he surmised that this was owing to the innkeeper's cockney pronunciation, which always likes to squeeze in an *h* where it is not wanted.

He entered the savings bank. A young man was standing at a desk, apparently engaged in some calculation.

"Can I here be saved?" Steven asked.

"I'll attend to you in two minutes," the clerk answered.

Steven looked round the place. It was a magnificent office. A large set of mahogany desks seemed waiting for a dozen clerks who had not yet made their appearance. Steven perceived that he was mistaken. "Still," he thought, "I will ask this young man to help me on my way."

"Well. What can I do for you?" said the clerk to him.

Now Steven wanted at once to tell him that he perceived he was wrong, but he did not know the word "wrong." What is *verkeerd* in English? he asked himself. He translated the English word into Latin, and giving it an English termination, said: "My gentleman, I see I am perverted. I wish to be saved."

The comical face with which Steven said these words called up an equally comical expression on the face of the clerk.

"What? Are you perverted?" he asked, contracting his brow with a queer look.

"Yes, I see I am here on the perverted place, but perhaps will you be so good of to help me on the way."

"Do you want to deposit any money?" the clerk asked.

"Yes, I have money," Steven answered, producing a handful of coppers from his pocket; "I must be saved with a razor along my visage."

The clerk laughed uproariously, and so did some of the other clerks who had now come in, until the whole office echoed. Steven, perceiving the oddity of the case, heartily joined them. The young man then took him to a barber's shop, where he soon got what he wanted.

A few days later he read in a shop window: *Shavings for grates.*

"Ah," he said to himself, "I suppose this is a philanthropic establishment for poor people to be shaved gratis."

After leaving the barber's shop poor Steven again found himself in an awkward predicament. He could not find his inn. In vain he walked up street after street. At length he asked a person whom he met:

"Can you tell me where Truman, Hanbury, Buxton, and Co.'s Entire is?"

"I don't know, I'm sure," was the answer. "Ask the cabman over there."

Cabby readily offered to take Steven to the place. After half-an-hour's drive, he found himself at the entrance to the brewery at Spitalfields. Of course cabby was ordered to drive back; and this time it was to my office. I was glad to meet our friend, and give him welcome.

"Where have you passed the night?" I asked.

"Well, in an Entire," Steven replied. "It was written up with big letters: Truman, Hanbury, Buxton, and Co.'s Entire."

I could not help laughing out, although it was unpolite. But he laughed as heartily when I explained the matter to him.

"Don't you know the name of the street?" I asked, looking as grave as I could.

"Yes," he answered, looking into his pocket-book, "it is *Stick no bills*, F. P. 13 ft."

"How in the world did you get that address?" I asked, scarcely able to contain myself.

"Well," he answered, "I went to the corner of the street where a church stands, and there I read these words."

Really it was no easy matter to find out the place from such an address. The circumstance, however, that the corner of the street was occupied by a church, and some other hints I gathered, supplied us with a thread to track our way through the labyrinth. After an hour's searching, we were successful in finding the "Entire," and soon we were on our way to Chelsea.

You can understand how we received the story of Steven's difficulties. He took it all good-naturedly, however, and by repeated questionings showed a great thirst for information. Here is one out of many of his interrogatories. He asked why the entrance to a railway station bore the inscription *tuo yaw*, which he noticed at the London Bridge terminus. He looked into his dictionary, but the word *tuo* was not there, and as to the word *yaw*, he found it was a nautical term, meaning a quick out-of-the-way motion. But what it had to do with a railway station he was not able to make out. Various solutions were offered. Some thought it might be the name of one of the stations on the line. Others supposed it might be the name of an advertiser. At length, after much musing and guessing, we discovered that it was the words *Way out* painted on the glass door, but read by Steven from the wrong side.

Being engaged next day on important business, I left Steven to see London for himself. With his dictionary in one pocket and his map in the other, he set out in the direction of Hyde Park. He refused to take a guide, preferring

to find his way unassisted. "On that manner," he said, "shall I the city better learn to know, and I shall better to my eyes give the food." After having walked for a couple of hours, however, he found that he ought to "give the food" also to his stomach. He noticed a pie-shop.

"Can I here a little eat?"

"Yes," the lady replied. "What do you want?"

"What have you?" Steven asked.

"I can give you a pork pie."

Steven took his dictionary. He had never heard the word before. He soon found it, or at least he thought he had.

"What!" he exclaimed, "do you eat those beasts in this country?"

"Of course we do," the lady replied. "We aren't Jews."

"Tastes it nicely?"

"Very," the lady answered, with a smile.

"Give me a piece, if you please."

"I cannot give you a piece, you must take a whole one."

"But I cannot eat a whole porcupine," Steven exclaimed.

"Oh dear!" the lady cried, shaking with laughter, "did you think I meant to give you a hedgehog! No, sir, I cannot treat you to such a dainty. A pork pie is made of a pig."

Steven again referred to his dictionary, and turned up the word *pick*.

"That's in the whole no food, that's a hammer," he said. "I cannot eat iron and steel," he added with a smile.

The lady felt quite perplexed. She called her husband, to whom she explained her difficulty. He at once took a pie, and pointing to it with his finger, imitated the grunting noise of a hog in such a perfect way that there could be no further misapprehension. Steven then ate the pie with comfort and relish.—*Good Words.*

HERE is a good story from Cambridge, England. It is said that when the Greek Archbishop of Syros and Tenos attended in the Senate House, for the purpose of receiving his honorary degree of LL.D., he dropped his handkerchief, and on stooping down to recover it, one of the graduates in the gallery exclaimed, "Hurrah for the Grecian bend!" The effect was so intensely ludicrous that the whole assemblage was convulsed with laughter.

EMINENT TEACHERS AND EDUCATORS DECEASED IN 1870.

EDSON, Major THEODORE, U. S. A., a faithful and meritorious officer of ordnance during the late war, a graduate of West Point in 1860, and constantly in service from that time, having been since 1867 instructor of ordnance and the science of gunnery at West Point, died at Rock Island, Ill., Nov. 16, aged 31 years.

ELTON, Rev. ROMEO, D.D., LL.D., an eminent American scholar, professor, and author; born in Conn., in 1792, graduated from Brown University in 1813, and, after receiving a theological education and preaching for a few years, was elected professor of Latin and Greek languages and literature in his *alma mater*, and taught with great success for twenty years. Soon after his resignation in 1840, he went to England, where he remained for nine or ten years engaged in literary pursuits. He married, for a second wife, an English lady of high literary reputation. His thorough scholarship and urbane manners made him a great favorite among the eminent scholars of England and the continent. In 1851 he returned to the United States, and spent three or four years here, but returned to England, where he remained till the summer of 1869, when he re-visited his own country, and died in Boston, Feb. 5, 1870. By will, he gave $20,000 to Brown University, and the same sum to the Columbian College, Washington, D. C., for the endowment of professorships. He had previously endowed several scholarships in Brown University.

FOSS, Rev. ARCHIBALD C., a Methodist clergyman of remarkable ability and eloquence, a professor in the Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., from 1861 to 1863, and subsequently a preacher and presiding elder in the Methodist church, died at Clarens, Switzerland, March 30, 1870, aged 40 years.

GRANDVAL, JEAN HENRY GUIGON DE, a native and long a resident of La Rochelle, France; a captain in the Royal army, exiled in 1830, at the accession of Louis Phillipe, and

since that time a successful teacher of French in this country, and long at the head of a Seminary for young ladies in Hoboken, N. J., died there, January 3, 1870.

HAWLEY, GIDEON, a distinguished scholar and author, devoted, through the greater part of his long life, to the promotion of education, born in Huntington, Conn., in 1785, removed to Saratoga Co., N. Y., in 1794, graduated from Union College in 1809, admitted to the bar in Albany in 1813, appointed secretary of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York in 1814, discharged its duties with great faithfulness and ability, without salary, for twenty-seven years. On the organization of the Smithsonian Institute, in 1846, he was one of the four Regents at large, and remained in that board till his death. He was the author of "Essays on Truth and Knowledge," a work of great discrimination and acuteness. He died in Albany, N. Y., Aug. 20, aged 85 years.

HEATH, LYMAN, a noted vocalist and teacher of vocal music, who had taught singing schools, and led choirs in Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont, Massachusetts and Ohio for forty-five years, died in Nashua, New Hampshire, where he had lived for thirty years, June 30, at the age of 66.

HUTTON, ABRAHAM B., for forty years principal of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, was born in Albany, Dec. 10, 1798, educated at Union College, graduating in 1817, first studied law and afterward theology, but owing to a severe throat affection did not enter the ministry. In 1822, he became an assistant teacher in the Pennsylvania Institution, then under the charge of the late Laurent Clerc; continued to act in that capacity under Mr. Lewis Weld, and in 1830 was appointed principal. He was a man of indefatigable industry and of remarkable tact and fidelity as a teacher. Under his care the institution prospered greatly. He died at the residence of his sister, at Stuyvesant Landing, N. Y., July 18, in the 72d year of his age.

JONES, Rev. GEORGE, chaplain in the United States navy, an Episcopal clergyman, a graduate of Yale College in 1820,

and connected with the navy since 1833, had been twice, for a period of about fifteen years in all, a professor in the Naval Academy at Annapolis. He was an accomplished scholar, and especially devoted to astronomy. He had published three or four volumes, one on the Zodiacal light. He died in Philadelphia, Jan. 22, aged 70 years.

KEANY, JOSEPH, a professor in Seton Hall College, Orange, N. J., for some years past, and highly esteemed for his ability as a teacher, was killed by an accident on the Morris and Essex railroad, in September, 1870.

KEEP, Rev. JOHN, a Congregationalist clergyman and promoter of education, born in Longmeadow, Mass., April 20, 1781, graduated from Yale College in 1802, taught school for a year in Bethlehem, Conn., was settled in Blandford, Mass., from 1805 to 1821, in Homer, N. Y., from 1821 to 1833, being meanwhile a trustee and an active friend of Auburn Theol. Seminary and of Hamilton College. He removed to Ohio in 1833, and, after three years of pastoral labor in Cleveland, accepted in 1836 a financial agency for Oberlin College, then in its infancy; visited England, and in eighteen months raised $30,000 there for Oberlin. In the intervals of pastoral labor, for fourteen years, he rendered the college other essential services. In 1850, being then in his seventieth year, he removed to Oberlin, and commenced the work of raising $100,000 endowment for the college, which he completed some years later. He died in Oberlin, Feb. 11, 1870, aged 89.

KINGSLEY, Rt. Rev. CALVIN, D.D., a Methodist clergyman, and since 1864 a Bishop of the M. E. Church, born in Amesville, Oneida Co., N. Y., Sept. 8, 1812. With scanty early advantages he taught country schools, and acquired a part of the means for obtaining a collegiate education, teaching also during his college course, and graduated from Allegheny College, Pa., with honor, in 1841. He was elected professor of mathematics in the College the year of his graduation, and remained in that chair, though preaching much of the time, until 1856. He received the degree of D.D. from Genesee College in 1853. In 1856, he resigned his professorship to become editor of the "Western Chris-

tian Advocate," at St. Louis, which he conducted with signal ability for eight years, when he was elected Bishop. He was making an Episcopal tour among the foreign missions of the Methodist Church at the time of his death, which occurred at Beirût, Syria, April 6, in the 58th year of his age.

KNOWLTON, Capt. MINER, U. S. A., an able and meritorious artillery officer, who graduated from West Point in 1829, and was on duty there as assistant professor and professor in mathematics, French, artillery and gunnery, from 1830 to 1844. Placed on the retired list in 1861, he had resided in Burlington, N. J., from that time till his death, Dec. 24, 1870, at the age of 66 years.

LEE, ROBERT EDMUND, LL.D., a graduate of West Point in 1829; distinguished in the Florida and Mexican wars; Superintendent of the Military Academy at West Point from Sept., 1852, to March, 1855; a general, and most of the time general-in-chief of the Confederate armies in the late civil war; president of Washington College, Lexington, Va., since 1866, died at Lexington, Va., Oct. 12, aged 64.

LONGSTREET, AUGUSTUS BALDWIN, LL.D., a Southern lawyer, judge, politician, clergyman, author, and college president, born in Augusta, Georgia, Sept. 22, 1790, educated at Wilmington, S. C., and Yale College, graduating in 1813, admitted to the bar in 1815, Judge of Superior Court 1821–27, candidate for Congress in 1824, but withdrew from the canvass in consequence of the death of his child, returned to the bar, but pursued a course of theological studies, and in 1838 was ordained a minister of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and stationed at Augusta, Ga. In 1829, he was elected president of Emery College, Ga., and continued in that position till 1848, when he became president of Centenary College, La., and a year or two later, of the University of Mississippi, at Oxford, Miss. In 1856 he resigned, intending to retire into private life, but in 1857 he was chosen president of the South Carolina College, now University of S. C., where he remained till 1862, when he returned to Oxford, Miss., and on the re-organization of the University was again, for a brief period, president. He died in Oxford, Sept. 6, 1870, aged 80.

LORD, NATHAN, D.D., LL.D., an eminent scholar, author, clergyman, and college president, who had spent thirty-eight years in the instruction of youth, born in Berwick, Me., 1793, graduated from Bowdoin College in 1809, taught for three years in Phillips Academy, Exeter, N. H., spent three years in theological study at Andover, Mass., was ordained and settled at Amherst, N. H., from 1816 to 1828, elected president of Dartmouth College in 1828, and continued in that position, greatly to the advantage and prosperity of the college, till 1863, when, having reached the ripe age of seventy, he resigned. Both during and after his presidency, he published several works on theological and political subjects. He died at Hanover, N. H., Sept. 9, 1870, aged 77 years.

LOZIER, MRS. CHARLOTTE DURMAN, M. D., a young and accomplished female physician, a professor for three years in the Woman's Medical College, New York, died in N. Y. City, Jan. 3, aged 26 years.

McCLINTOCK, Rev. JOHN, D.D., LL.D., a Methodist clergyman, author, editor, College professor, and President of Theological Seminary, born in Philadelphia in 1814; educated in the University of Penn., whence he graduated in 1835. From 1837 to 1848 he was a professor in Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., first of Mathematics, and afterward of Ancient Languages; prepared several classical text-books in connection with Professors Crooks and Schem; from 1848 to 1856 edited the *Methodist Quarterly Review;* was pastor of St. Paul's M. E. church, N. Y. city; President of Troy University, 1858–60; from 1860 to 1864 in charge of the American Chapel in Paris, and subsequently traveled extensively in Europe and the East; was editing, with Dr. Strong, during this period, the Biblical and Theological Encyclopædia; in 1867 was called to the Presidency of Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, N. J., where he died, March 4, 1870, aged 56 years.

MAHAN, Rev. MILO, D.D., an Episcopal clergyman, for some years professor in the Episcopal General Theological Seminary in New York, afterwards rector in Baltimore, and had recently been elected to the Chair of Systematic Theology in the General Seminary, died suddenly in Balti-

more, Sept. 4, 1870. He was the author of several Theological works.

MARSH, LEONARD, M.D., a Vermont physician, son of the late President Marsh, of the University of Vermont, a graduate of the University, and of Hanover Medical School, and for fifteen years a professor in the University of Vermont, died at Burlington, Vt., Aug. 16, 1870.

MARTIN, ROBERT M., a Maryland jurist and law professor, member of Congress, 1825–27, Judge of the Higher Courts of Maryland from 1845 to 1851 and from 1856 to 1867, Prof. of Law in the University of Maryland, 1867–1870, died at Saratoga Springs, July 20, 1870, aged 72.

MATTHEWS, Rev. JAMES M., D.D., a clergyman of the Reformed (Dutch) church, Theological professor and Chancellor of the University of the city of New York, born in Salem, Washington Co., in 1785, graduated from Union College in 1803, and from the Associate Reformed Seminary in 1807; was assistant professor in Dr. John M. Mason's Seminary from 1809 to 1818; pastor in New York city from 1812 to 1840; Chancellor of the University of the city of New York from 1831 to 1839, died in N. Y. city, Jan. 28, 1870, aged 85 years.

MILLER, WILLIAM ALLEN, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., an eminent English Chemist and Chemical professor and author, born at Ipswich, Eng., Dec. 17, 1817, educated at the Merchant Tailors' School and at a Quakers' Seminary in Yorkshire, and professionally at the General Hospital, Birmingham, King's College, London, and the University of Giessen. He became demonstrator of Chemistry at King's College, London, and took his M.D. at London University; he was appointed professor of Chemistry in King's College in 1845, and retained the position till his death. He was also a Fellow, treasurer, and Vice-President of the Royal Society, Assayer to the Mint and Bank of England, author of an excellent treatise, "Elements of Chemistry," and of numerous chemical and scientific papers. He died in London, Sept. 30, 1870, aged 53.

MOIR, Professor D. M., a Scottish poet and professor of

Rhetoric and English History in the University of Edinburgh for some years past, died in Edinburgh, Oct. 22, 1870.

NADAL, Rev. BERNARD H., D.D., LL.D., a Methodist clergyman, author and professor, born in 1815, on the eastern shore of Maryland, entered the Methodist ministry in 1835, but subsequently graduated from Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., and after preaching for some years in Maryland, Virginia and Delaware, accepted in 1850 a professorship in Asbury University, Indiana. He returned to the East in 1856 or 1857, and was stationed at Philadelphia, Washington, Brooklyn, New Haven, and Baltimore. At the organization of Drew Theological Seminary he was, at Dr. McClintock's request, appointed Professor of Church History, and after Dr. McClintock's death, was acting President of the Seminary until his own death, which occurred at Madison, N. J., June 20, 1870, in the 55th year of his age.

PLUMPTRE, Rev. FREDERICK C., D.D., an eminent English scholar, Master of University College, Oxford, from 1836 to his death, died in Oxford, Nov. 20, 1870.

POPE, CHARLES A., M.D., an eminent surgeon, professor of Surgery and Surgical writer of St. Louis, whose reputation in his profession was unsurpassed by any surgeon in the West, died at Paris, Mo., July 6th, aged 52 years.

POWELL, LLEWELLYN, M.D., a distinguished physician and professor of Medicine for many years in the University of Louisville, Ky., died in Louisville, July 19, 1870, aged 68 years.

PUPLY, Rev. JOHN T., D.D., a distinguished clergyman, author and professor of the United Presbyterian Church, born in Abbeville District, South Carolina, in 1803, educated in the S. C. University and in the Associate Reformed Theological Seminary of Dr. John M. Mason, in New York city. He was first settled in Abbeville District, but in 1831 was called to Allegheny, as pastor of the First Associate Reformed (now United Presbyterian) church and professor of Theology in the U. P. Theological Seminary, and continued to discharge the duties of both positions with

remarkable ability till his death, which occurred in Allegheny, Pa., Aug. 13, 1870, at the age of 67 years.

PROUDFIT, Rev. JOHN, D. D., a clergyman of the Reformed (Dutch) church, author and professor, born in Salem, Washington Co., N. Y., in 1803, graduated from Union College in 1820, and was for several years thereafter a tutor in the College. He was elected Professor of Greek Language and Literature in Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., about 1830, and filled that position for twenty years with great ability. He subsequently devoted some time to literary pursuits, editing for a time a Quarterly Theological Review. His health had been feeble for ten years or more. He died in New York city, March 9, 1870, aged 67.

ROOT, EDWARD W., a young and accomplished physicist, professor of Chemistry in Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., died there Nov. 15, aged 30 years.

(Conclusion in our next.)

THE TARTAR ABROAD.

THE Chinese have a proverb to the effect that a little learning is a dangerous thing, and is thus expressed: "Having studied three years, you (think you) can range the horizon round, but studying another three years makes the first step difficult." This was aptly illustrated in the experience of one of the young men who accompanied the Chinese Embassy, who remarked on his arrival at Shanghai, that three years were entirely too short to study western civilization, thirty would barely suffice—"I," continued he, "was wise (in my own conceit) when I left China, but now I know myself a fool, and would gladly renew my visit to the west for a longer period." Speaking of the countries visited, he said, (in good English) "France for beauty, England for solidity; America as a compromise between the two, but Prussia had an antique appearance." He said of the different nations, the Embassy liked America best, "but of course did not say so diplomatically!"—*Shanghai News Letter.*

A NEW PROFESSORSHIP.

WANTED.—A Professor of Innocent Amusements. A Lady; one who can find agreeable employment for six young girls when out of school.

THIS unique and significant advertisement appears in one of our exchanges. The advertiser keeps a boarding school, and she calls it a boarding school, not a Seminary for Females, nor a Young Ladies' Institute, nor even a Female College; simply a boarding school; which fact we make special note of as evidence that the announcement is *bona fide*, not an advertising trick of a quack. It is to be hoped that the call has been suitably responded to, and that the time is not distant when the same want will be recognized and met in every boarding school. Provisionally, that is to say until a crop of young men trained to innocent amusements can be reared, it might be well to have a corresponding professorship in all our high institutions of learning. It might help to suppress some of the *un*-innocent amusements prevalent in such places—gunpowder explosions, untimely bathing of freshmen, and the like. But this is merely a suggestion thrown out, not insisted on. With regard to the boarding schools, however, it is insisted on. At the top of the list of instructors in every such institution we ought to read MR. (or MRS.) JOLLIBOY, *Professor of Innocent Amusements*, Mr. Jolliboy's duty being to provide "agreeable employment" for the pupils during out of school hours. We have hopes that the time is coming when children's employment *in* school shall be agreeable also; but our hopes are not so strong as they might be. It will be a long time before teachers as a class understand that the value of instruction is not to be measured by its disagreeableness; and that children are always delighted with suitable knowledge rightly presented. When they hate instruction it is in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the instructor's fault.

"Nonsense!" we hear innumerable voices exclaim. "It is more than we can do to keep the young knowledge-hating heirs of depravity at work as it is, without *teaching* them to play. Innocent amusements indeed! Away with such tri-

fling. Education is a serious business and should be seriously attended to."

True, perhaps: but "seriously" does not of necessity mean sadly or unpleasantly. Joy is one of the main factors of mental development. The intellectual rank of any creature may be measured by the playfulness of its infancy. Who would buy a puppy with not a streak of fun in him, or a colt with no more friskiness than a worn out cart horse? Your sober colt or puppy is either sick or stupid; and so, as a rule, is your habitually sober child. Go to our Asylums for the weak-minded if you want to see patterns of sobriety; next to them the homes of intemperate and vicious parents. The fun-loving propensity of such little miserables, if they ever had any, has been crushed into untimely soberness by disease or ill-treatment, and they are not bright.

A certain old teacher used to remark that he would rather have "ten devils in a class than one fool." He could make something of the imps of mischief, not by suppressing their jollity, but by turning it into right channels. The "fool" is not troublesome, but hopeless; he lacks energy of mind. A friend of ours, an experienced teacher, says: "The hardest working, most brilliant and successful student I ever had the pleasure of teaching, was a young man whom the president of the college called a *monkey*, too full of frolic to accomplish anything useful. He *was* too frolicsome to do anything soberly, more especially if gravity was insisted on as a duty. But when his overflowing humor was allowed to brighten his work, he was the most persistent student in the institution; he made fun of labor that sober-sided plodders broke their hearts and deranged their stomachs over."

Everybody has seen in society untitled, may be unconscious, professors of amusement. Let such a person he present to organize and lead the diversion of the company, and all are kept agreeably employed, Joy is unconfined, and the time passes with unceasing pleasantness. Let the leader be absent, and a dead weight settles upon all, the play is spasmodic, laborious, and the company struggles through the evening dispirited and dull, desiring enjoyment but finding none. What such a leader of fun is to the social circle, the Professor of Innocent Amusements ought to be to the school.

He should make the play-ground worthy of its name, and the sitting room, commonly so dreary, somewhat like those happy home-circles—thank God so numerous in the land!—where young and old spend the long winter evenings over books and games, puzzles and plays, brightening their wits and expanding their hearts by multiform innocent diversions. While the duties and labors of such a Professor in training the young to live happily and to make others happy, would be quite as valuable as those of the Professors of Latin and Mathematics, they would also be valuable in preparing the pupils for a more successful pursuit of severer studies. Joy is recreative, a better antidote for weariness than the cocoa leaf of the Peruvian miner. And another great advantage would be gained. When provision is made for the innocent amusement of children, the satisfying of their natural and proper appetite for hilarity, no occasion is left for malicious sport. It is the unnatural antagonism between teachers and taught, arising largely from the attempted suppression of all playfulness, that gives a malicious turn to so much of school-boy fun. The need of a liberal provision for amusement is quite as great with girls as with boys. Many thanks then for the wise example set by our advertiser. May her six young girls be richly blessed with their new professor, and all other boys and girls at school favored in like manner!

Here is a splendid opening for some genial benefactor of infancy: to establish training school for governesses and "Professors of Innocent Amusement." The English are founding schools for the training of nurses for the sick.—Their field is narrow compared with that of the institutions we propose. People are beginning to appreciate the educational importance of the ante-school period: and the time is coming when infants will not be turned over to ignorant servants, but to properly educated disciples of Fröbel. These must be trained for their work. The example has been set by the noble Baroness Marenholtz-Bulow in Berlin, whose kinder-garten normal school is preparing many young women for the proper care and culture of infancy. In this country two of her disciples, Mrs. Kriege and daughter, are trying to do a similar work in Boston, having failed to find sufficient encouragement here. It is said that they have

since been invited to return to take charge of a department in our city normal school. We hope the report is true, and that they will come to hasten the filling of the new professorship with well trained and warm-hearted purveyors of "agreeable employment" for children in school and out. —*Christian Union.*

MR. HUGHES' MISTAKE.

IT has been said of that good friend of America and of childhood, Mr. Thos. Hughes, that no man was more cordially received by Americans, or saw less of them. The workingmen, the politicians and the radicals, have all severally complained that he found very little opportunity to observe them, except through the windows of some Cambridge library. It was his misfortune that his visit was so short. It was fortunate, perhaps, for his own enjoyment, that he spent it precisely as he did. But it certainly impaired the value of his generalizations.

It is especially a pity that he should have given a fresh lease of life to the old delusion that educated Americans take no interest in politics. This maxim has had many years of life in Europe, on the authority of De Tocqueville, and has pointed the moral of many European attacks upon America. It is a pity that it should do another thirty years' work of mischief when set in motion by Mr. Hughes. And it has a special bearing on the "woman question," because if educated men forswear politics, why should not educated women?

Now it is natural to ask, in what part of America is it that educated men do not interest themselves in politics? It will not be pretended it is in the vast States of the West, nor in the South, except as temporarily deranged by the war. In those States the career of public life still attracts to it the best educated young men, and the same is true of the rural parts of the Middle States. Even in New-York City, though the ward-politicians are not college-bred men, their advisers or agents in the newspaper press and in the court-rooms are such. Tweed and Sweeney may or may not be college grad-

uates, but the editors of the *World* are. Fisk, Jr., is not a graduate of anything but the pedlar's wagon, but his legal adviser, David Dudley Field, is. From the *Tribune* to the *Sun*, the majority of the intellectual labor of the New-York press is done by college men. They may not win the prizes, but they do the work.

The circle is then narrowed to New England. But no one who knows anything of our rural colleges in New England, such as Dartmouth and Amherst, will say that their graduates do not interest themselves in politics. How is it with Yale? Yale has always boasted of the number of its graduates who have distinguished themselves in public life. The inquiry brings us back to Harvard, and Harvard alone. I do not know another college in America of whom it can even plausibly be asserted that its graduates are indifferent to politics. And if I know anything about Harvard, if such an evil exists there, it is of very recent origin, and Mr. Hughes should have addressed his warnings, not to the young men, but to the present set of teachers who train them.

The writer was born and bred under the shadow of Harvard College; his father was an officer of the institution, and he had no home but Cambridge for twenty-three years. He has lived in New England ever since, and has never yet seen the time when he himself, and most of his compeers, were not actively interested in politics on the one side or the other. Those who became clergymen generally preached politics, and often lost their pulpits for its sake. Those who attempted to pursue a literary career, like Lowell and Curtis and Dana, were apt to be drawn aside into politics, and to end in editing periodicals of a marked political character, like the *Sun* or *Harper's Weekly* or the *North Am. Review*. Those who became lawyers or business men took a yet more engrossing interest in political affairs. All these may not have reached political distinction, but there are not distinctions enough for all, and the fact that a man takes an interest in a thing does not prove that he has a gift for it.

Looking back over the political influences that have successively controlled Massachusetts, we see educated men (as Mr. Hughes would use the term) behind them all. The old Whig party of the State was devoted to the fortunes of col-

lege-bred men. The Free-Soil party, which broke it up, was founded by Sumner, Palfrey, Allen and Adams—all college-bred men—together with Wilson, who took his honorable degree at the lapstone. On the other hand, the "Abolitionist" party, who certainly interested themselves most vehemently in politics, without casting a vote, was led—after Garrison—by Phillips, Quincy and May, all Harvard men.

Looking round for the class of educated men who are *not* interested in politics, I find this class only in a few men in our larger cities, half spoiled by wealth and Europe, who have been pooh-poohing America and everything in it, ever since I can remember. Or in precisely the class of men who nestle in some of our colleges, and dread nothing so much as a hearty faith or a genuine enthusiasm. If all educated men were like these, they would, of course, have nothing to do with politics, and politics would be the gainer. But if Mr. Hughes had taken the time to see more of these Americans who were so eager to see him, he would have found our educated men a far more robust and vigorous class of human beings than he seems to imagine.

Nothing is harder than for a foreigner, who goes for all his information to one set of people, to see a nation as a whole. Americans themselves may be so ignorant of America! I dined last summer with two highly educated young Englishmen, both eager to know and to admire this country.—There was, also, a highly intelligent young Bostonian present, eager to instruct them. One of his first bits of information was based upon this same cant about the aversion of our educated men to politics. He said, "Formerly our college-bred men went to Congress—now you find hardly any there." I asked him, "How many—in the House of Representatives, for instance?" He said, "Probably a dozen." I said, "Probably fifty." Referring to Poore's *Congressional Directory*, it proved that 68 Representatives out of 205, and 31 Senators out of 66, were wholly, or in part, college bred, not counting those who had merely attended professional schools. When a third of the Lower House, and nearly one half of the Upper, belong thus to the class of educated men (according to the American standard, at least,) it is absurd to say that tnese men do not interest themselves in politics.

And, considering the narrowness and pedantry that have confessedly marked much of this college education in the past, it seems doubtful whether a very much larger proportion would be an improvement.

So far from saying that educated men in America do not interest themselves in politics, I should say that one great reason of our inferiority in works of literature and science is because our educated men interest themselves in politics so much. It requires a constant effort for them to get time for their studies, and keep away from the platform and the newspapers. This is well, for it makes stronger men, though inferior scholars. Whether "educated" men exert their rightful share of *influence* in America is another question. If they do not, it is their own fault. I cannot conceive of a more querulous figure than that of an "educated" man, with a pen and a voice at his command, and the power to influence the whole nation by their means, who yet whines because, when election-day comes, he can throw personally no more votes than his speechless neighbor.—T. W. H., *in the Woman's Jour.*

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART SEVENTH.

"It were a folly to commit anything elaborately composed to the careless and interrupted listening of these tumultuous times."

JOHN MILTON. 1641.

THE PURITAN INFLUENCE, 1649–1660.

IT has been already intimated that the Puritan influence of the seventeenth century was felt for a long period, and that the eleven years of the Commonwealth only mark its culmination. The fact that the strife between Puritan and Royalist modified English literature is so patent that it cannot be questioned for a moment by one familiar with the history of the stirring times.

There were strong writers on both sides of the questions, and the influence we have to notice was not confined to any

single party. Argument on one side brought out argument on the other, and the general discussion was what gave the general earnestness of tone to the times.

One of the writers towers so much above all others of the period, that we are naturally led to consider him more at length than we usually are able to do in these papers.—We are the more willing to do so, because by understanding his life, we shall better understand our subject in several aspects.

This man describes his personal appearance in 1654, "lest," as he says, "any one, from the representations of my enemies, should be led to imagine that I have either the head of a dog, or the horn of a rhinoceros."

"I do not believe that I was ever once noted for deformity by any one that ever saw me; but the praise of beauty I am not anxious to obtain. My stature certainly is not tall; but it rather approaches the middle than the diminutive. . . Nor though very thin, was I ever deficient in courage or in strength; and I was wont constantly to exercise myself in the use of the broadsword, as long as it comported with my habit and my years. Armed with this weapon, as I usually was, I should have thought myself quite a match for any one, though much stronger than myself; and I felt perfectly secure against the assault of any open enemy. At this moment I have the same courage, the same strength, though not the same eyes; yet so little do they betray any external appearance of injury, that they are as unclouded and bright as the eyes of those who most distinctly see. In this instance alone I am a dissembler against my will. My face, which is said to indicate a total privation of blood, is of a complexion entirely opposite to the pale and the cadaverous; so that, though I am more than forty years old, there is scarcely any one to whom I do not appear ten years younger than I am; and the smoothness of my skin is not, in the least, affected by the wrinkles of age. . . . Thus much necessity compelled me to assert concerning my personal appearance." He might have added that he possessed elegant manners, and, following the fashions of the day, wore his luxuriant hair in flowing curls about his shoulders.

Such was John Milton, the Latin secretary of Oliver Crom-

well, and the author of *Paradise Lost.* He was born in London in 1608, eight years before Shakspeare died, and in Bread street, upon which the Mermaid Inn was situated, so celebrated as the resort of the great dramatist and his companions. Milton's father was of a Romish family, but had been disinherited for adherence to the reformed faith. He was of cultivated tastes, and brought up his son with studious habits, intending him ultimately for the church. In 1628, the young and handsome Puritan took his bachelor's degree at Oxford, and spent the following years in a round of laborious study, in which he gave a free rein to his refined and scholarly tastes. He read history, the Greek and Latin classics generally, and became familiar with the literature of France, Spain, and Italy. His special fondness was for poetry, and during these years he wrote his *Hymn to the Nativity; L'Allegro; Il Penseroso; Cosmos; Sonnet to the Nightingale,* and other exquisite pieces that show the delicacy of his fancy, and the refinement of his poetic taste. Fortified by strong Christian faith, the young poet seemed ready to plume the wings of his imagination for loftier flights.

His studies of Continental literature and history had already given him a strong desire to visit the different countries of Europe, of which Italy, the home of art and elegance, appears to have attracted him most strongly. His mother, however, was loth to trust him so far away, and love for her kept him in England until after her death in 1637. Then, furnished with ample introductory letters, young Milton left home at the age of thirty, and for fifteen months indulged himself by carrying out his cherished project. He went to Paris, where he was kindly received by Grotius, then Swedish ambassador at the French court. He went to Florence, and for two months enjoyed the society of the members of the celebrated literary academies of that city. There he wrote Latin poems and Italian sonnets that established a high reputation for him among the scholars. In Rome he also staid two months, protected by the librarian of the Vatican, and by Cardinal Barberini. It is not to our purpose to follow Milton in all his foreign travels, but only to say further that his familiar intercourse with the most noted literary and scientific men of the period increased

his literary ambition, and led to the formation of various projects of high order. His patriotism and imagination united with his chivalric sense of honor to direct him toward the composition of an epic or dramatic poem, founded upon those stories of King Arthur, to which we have so often had occasion to allude.

Up to this point in Milton's life we are not made aware of any influence upon his literary tastes or productions distinctively Puritan in its origin. He was now thirty years of age. Born the year that Pocahontas so dramatically appeared, in the history of our own country, to save the life of Captain John Smith, he had been familiar with the early efforts at settlement in America, and with the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth. He was eighteen years old when Lord Bacon died; he remembered less distinctly Sir Walter Raleigh; he knew of the perils of the Huguenots in 1620, under Louis XIII; he was informed of the progress of the Thirty Years' War in Germany; and, of course, he knew all about the struggles of the Puritans in opposition to the Royalists at home. He had seen the unhappy reign of James I. terminate with an unpleasant relation of antagonism existing between King and Commons. He had witnessed the sad entanglements of Charles I., as he vainly tried to increase the revenues of the crown, and he had seen the tyrant Laud raised to the archbishopric. He had read the Petition of Right, addressed by the Commons to King Charles in 1628, and he had anxiously watched the growing difference between the Puritans, representing English liberties, and their despotic king. He was one of the representatives of liberty in civil and ecclesiastical affairs, nor did his cultivated, sensitive nature shrink from classing itself with the other members of the body.

He saw that his co-religionists were to a great extent persons of rank, learning, genius and general intelligence, nor were they of the rigid and austere, social habits for which we often give them credit. They truly sustained principles, and loved the Bible; but they also loved literature and music. As we read the contemporary record, we find that they "could dance admirably well;" that they had exact ears and judgment in music, and could divert themselves with a viol;

that they "shot excellently in bows and guns," and had "great judgment in paintings, gravings, sculpture, and all liberal arts." They took pleasure in the "improvement of grounds, in planting groves and walks and fruit trees, in opening springs, and making fishponds." Some of them besides Milton gloried in luxuriant curls, and some would now even be called coxcombs in appearance. Some of them were like Whitelock, Cromwell's ambassador to Sweden, who "testified" there against the practice of drinking healths, but who, in reply to questions from the Protector said, "I kept my people together, and in action and recreation, by having music in my house, and encouraging that, and the exercise of dancing, which held them by the eyes and ears, and gave diversion without any offence."

Well informed as Milton was on all the details of political movements before he left England, it was natural that he should also be informed of the progress of events when he was on his travels. He had heard of the riot at Edinburgh, the summer before he left home, and knew that it began in the cathedral when the obnoxious English service was being read. He remembered that when Jenny Geddes threw her folding stool at the reader's head on that occasion, it was followed by a shower of prayer-books and stools projected by other violent Scottish wives. But, with most others, he looked upon the occurrence as merely a temporary outburst of passion. Such, however, it did not prove, for the excitement spread wider and wider, and became stronger and stronger until the autumn of 1638, when the solemn General Assembly at Glasgow decreed the "total abolition of Episcopacy in the kirk of Scotland."

The news of this event was carried to John Milton. It reached him when he was enjoying the congenial atmosphere of the Italian academies—when the visions of his heroic poem were captivating his wondrous imagination. He had been thinking—let us use his words—"that by labor and intense study, joined with the strong propensity of nature, I might, perhaps, leave something so written to after-times, as they should not willingly let it die."

But, of a sudden, his feelings changed, and, likening himself to the "sad prophet Jeremiah," he takes up this lament:

"Wo is me, my mother, that thou hast borne me, a man of strife and contention." Setting aside his golden visions of poetical attainment, he turns to prose, of which he says: "I should not chose this manner of writing, wherein knowing myself inferior to myself, led by the genial power of nature to another task, I have the use, as I may account, but of my left hand." Still he says he does not speak to complain, but only to "make it manifest with what small willingness I endure to interrupt the pursuit of no less hopes than these, and leave a calm and pleasing solitariness, fed with cheerful and confident thoughts, to embark in a troubled sea of noises and hoarse disputes."

Milton was at Naples, the guest of Manso, the patron of Tasso, preparing to pass over into Sicily and Greece, when the melancholy news from Scotland reached him. He foresaw the war that ensued between Charles I. and Scotland, and turned toward home, saying: "I thought it base to be traveling for amusement abroad, while my fellow-citizens were fighting for liberty at home." Arriving in England in August, 1639, he said: "I saw that a way was opening for the establishment of real liberty; that the foundation was laying for the deliverance of man from the yoke of slavery and superstition; that the principles of religion, which were the first objects of our care, would exert a salutary influence on the manners and constitution of the republic; and as I had from my youth studied the distinction between religion and civil rights, I perceived that if I ever wished to be of use, I ought at least not to be wanting to my country, to the church, and to so many of my fellow-christians, in a crisis of so much danger; I therefore determined to relinquish the other pursuits in which I was engaged, and to transfer the whole force of my talents and my industry to this one important object."

The Puritan influence is apparent now. And was it not a noble influence that led this young and ambitious man to devote his powers so nobly to the service of patriotism, instead of giving himself up to the enjoyment of labor in more congenial spheres? This influence is shown in twenty years of Milton's life, during which he supported the popular party in all that he thought right, and pointed out what he consid-

ered erroneous. These literary productions are marked by great earnestness, show the eloquence of conviction, and present principles, then fresh and new, that are now cornerstones in the temple of freedom. They also show that the writer lived on a higher plane than those did for whom he wrote—that his wisdom was more penetrating—more far-seeing—more comprehensive than theirs. The following selections from the titles of Milton's prose works will give an idea of their range:—*Of Reformation in England*, 1641; *The Reason of Church Government urged against Prelaty*, 1641; *Areopagitica: a Speech for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing*, 1644; *On Education*, 1644; *The Tenure of Kings and Magistrates*, 1649; *A Defence of the People of England*, 1650; *The Ruptures of the Commonwealth*, 1659; *Likeliest Means to remove Hirelings out of the Church*, 1659; *Civil Power in Ecclesiastical Causes, showing that it is not lawful for any power on earth to compel in matters of Religion; Delineation of a Free Commonwealth*, 1660; *Way to Establish a Free Commonwealth*, 1660.

The limits of this paper do not allow us to consider these titles; but they are selected to show, that, in this case at least, the influence we are considering gave a practical turn to our literature, made it strong, and inclined it to prose rather than to poetry. Milton labored under the great disadvantage of having had his writings so soon considered, at a time when popular sentiments were adverse to them. The last two mentioned above were written the very year that the Stuart despotism was restored to the country, and we can well imagine how they were probably received. In pursuance of judicial orders some of his works were burned by the common hangman, and we are not quite sure that the authorities would not have enjoyed burning him with them. His prose has scarcely yet secured the place in popular esteem that it ought to have, though through a few readers it exerts an influence upon the thought of to-day.

John Milton is a worthy representative of the influence of the Puritan party upon English literature. His prose shows the Puritan force, earnestness, and love of freedom; his verse proves that elegant culture was not unknown among the partisans of Cromwell.

Contemporary with Milton was John Bunyan, though twenty years his junior. He too suffered at the Restoration, and in suffering produced his allegory of *Pilgrim's Progress.* So our greatest allegory and our greatest epic were produced at the same historical juncture, by two men of sorrow, both boldly professing unpopular principles, and both of great powers of imagination—the one of the highest culture, the other of the least: one appealing to men of the highest intellectual attainments and of the most poetic imagination, the other speaking with eloquence to all men every where and always.

Among the other eminent writers of this period were the witty theologian, Thos. Fuller, 1608–1661; Abraham Cowley, 1618–1667, like Fuller, a royalist, and as a poet the favorite of Milton; Bishop Hall, of Norwich, 1574–1656, a strong defender of Episcopacy, and one of the earliest of our satirists; Jeremy Taylor, 1613–1667, another royalist, a man of wonderful unction, and sweetness; Isaac Barrow, 1630–1677; Andrew Marrell, 1620–1678, another companion of Milton; Edmund Waller, 1605–1687; and Richard Baxter, 1615–1691.

ARTHUR GILMAN.

SICK AND ILL.

SICK and ill are two words that have been perverted in general British usage. Almost all British speakers and writers limit the meaning of *sick* to the expression of qualmishness, sickness at the stomach, nausea, and lay the proper burden of the adjective *sick* upon the adverb *ill.* They sneer at us for not joining in the robbery and the imposition. I was present once when a British merchant, receiving in his own house a Yankee youth at a little party, said, in a tone that attracted the attention of the whole room: "Good evening! We haven't seen you for a long while. Have you been *seeck*" (the sneer prolonged the word,) "as you say in your country?" "No, thank you," said the other, frankly and promptly, "I've been *hill*, as they say in yours." John Bull, although he blushed to the forehead, had the good sense, if not the good nature, to join in the

laugh that followed; but I am inclined to think that he never ran another tilt in that quarter. As to the sense in which *sick* is used by the best English writers, there can be, of course, no dispute; but I have seen this set down in a British critical journal, of high class, as an "obsolete sense." It is not obsolete, even in modern British usage. The Birmingham *Journal*, of Aug. 29, 1869, informs its readers that "The Sick Club question has given rise to another batch of letters from local practitioners of medicine;" Mrs. Massingberd publishes *Sickness, Its Trials, and Blessings*, (London, 1868;) and a letter before me, from a London woman to a friend says: "I am truly sorry to hear you are so very sick. Do make haste and get well." One of Matthew Arnold's poems is, "The Sick King in Bokara," in which are these lines:

> "O, King, thou know'st I have been sick
> These many days, and heard no thing."

British officers have sick leave; British invalids keep a sick bed, or a sick room, and so forth, no matter what their ailment. No one of them ever speaks of ill leave, an ill room, or an ill bed. Was an Ill Club ever heard of in England? The incongruity is apparent, and it is new-born and needless. For the use of *ill*—an adverb—as an adjective, thus, an ill man, there is no defense and no excuse, except the contamination of bad example.—*Words and their Uses, by Richard Grant White.*

HOW THE GERMAN ARMIES ARE FED.

THE *Wester Zeitung* gives a description of the manufactory of Prussian army stores at Berlin. More than 1,700 persons, adults and youths of both sexes, are engaged from morning till night in preparing 150,000 pounds of peas pudding (erbswurst—literary, pea sausage), and 240,000 rations of meat and vegetable preserves, which are daily despatched by railway. The largest room in the building is devoted to the preparation of peas pudding. Swine's flesh, especially bacon and hams, are first cooked in twelve large sauce-pans. The other components of the pea-flour, salt,

and the so-called "lupus," the name humorously given by the inventor to the secret ingredient which makes the article keep, and gives it an agreeable flavor.

When the mixture is cooked it is poured into pails, and, by skillful kneading, the pea sausage soon becomes firm, and is enclosed in a covering, not of skin, but of parchment. Boys and girls carry the mixture on wheel-barrows to the packing-room, where 400 women and girls, after cleansing the outside from grease, affix on every portion the following label:—"Put ten ounces, or one-third of a sausage, freed from the coating, into 1½ pint of cold water, stir it up, and let it cook for ten minutes." The sausages are carefully packed in pairs, and are sent to the coopers' workshop, where they are stowed into 150 lb. chests, nailed up, and sent off. The sausage or pudding becomes in time as hard as stone. The genuine article is not obtainable by the public, though imitations of it are sold.

Turnips, carrots, and celery for the preserves are dressed and cut by about 120 women. The tin cases of the preserved employ 120 workmen; 100 oxen are daily slaughtered, and 275 cwt. of bacon daily bought for the manufactory. The preserves, already soldered up in cases, are boiled in the so-called marine baths. Labels, with the directions, are placed on every case. Everything is made the most of, the bones being cooked and supplying excellent broth. Eighteen sauce-pans are used for preparing "gullasch"—a mixture of beef and maize, which is much relished by the troops. The works cover about six acres, and are now the property of the State. There are similar establishments at Frankfort and Mayence.

AN ANECDOTE is related illustrative of the slyness of the Bohemian compared with the simple honesty of the German and the candid unscrupulousness of the Hungarian. In war-time three soldiers, of each of these three nations, met in a parlor of an inn, over the chimney-place of which hung a watch. When they had gone the German said, "That is a good watch; I wish I had bought it." "I am sorry I did not take it," said the Hungarian. "I have it in my pocket," said the Bohemian.

NEW SCIENCE vs. OLD LEARNING.

WE are just now in the midst of a great battle between the advocates and opponents of classical education. It is an old war, and though long truces intervene, it breaks out afresh at irregular intervals, and with renewed violence. We do not expect to see the end of it. At present, however, by reason of the vast strides which science has taken of late years, and the numberless practical applications of it in all departments of labor and life, the claims of classical education seem in some danger of being popularly underrated. Its advantages are less palpable and striking. It is difficult for such as have not themselves undergone such a training, to appreciate its wide-reaching influence. It operates by methods less direct and obvious, and so is in some danger of failing to be generally recognized for what it is and does. The *cui bono* test is not so readily applied to it. "What's the use?" is the first question asked by the uninstructed man. Arithmetic and Chemistry and Civil Engineering can answer it to his comprehension. The Languages and Philosophy can answer it, but the questioner only half comprehends, and does not half believe, the response. The Sciences and the Arts have their works to show—outward and tangible achievements; the "humanities," operating in a region behind and above the things visible and material, find some difficulty in proving, to everybody's satisfaction, just what they have accomplished. The works—the results, are there; and there is no sort of doubt about their source and authorship; but how to make it apparent—how to trace distant and diffused effects to their cause, and make all men see the connection which yet the physical eye cannot see—this is a hard, perhaps an impossible thing. The benefits of literature and history, of culture and refinement; the hold which the past maintains on the present, and the nourishment and vigor which it imparts to it; the degree to which laws and institutions and politics are still indebted to "them of old time;" the necessity that progress be conservative, that so it may have health and permanence; the need of an all-sided development in order to the making of whole and well-balanced men; the

disciplinary as well as practical effect of other than scientific studies, and the mental power given by discipline—training —*education* in its proper sense, as distinguished from mere manual or mental dexterities;—these and such like are matters that require long and careful thought fully to appreciate.

For ourselves, we have no war to wage with either side, save when they come to negations. When the sciences would drive the languages from the field, we belong to the classicists. When Greek and Latin and metaphysics deny the disciplinary and educational value of those studies that deal with nature, we desert and range ourselves with the sciences. We belong to both parties, and can see no occasion for jealousy and hostilities. Whatever God has made, a man may study, and with profit. It is worth labor, and not ill bestowed,—this effort to read the thoughts of the Creator in the "things that are made;" but at the same time it holds true that God's highest work known to us is Man, and we may very well come back from the scrutiny of stones and shells and chemical reactions to the study of the last and greatest chapter in the whole vast volume of Natural History, which is entitled "Man." His nature, powers, achievements, destiny—the wide domain of laws, literatures, religions—all that men have thought and done—whatever is comprised in the word *history* when used with the largest acceptation,—this is surely worthy of a life's devotion. It is God's work none the less for being man and man's work. Even if we regard language as a sort of secretion, it is still not less worthy of attention than fungi and minerals. The modern scholar, before whom whole new continents of physical science open on every side, need not blush to quote the ancient *Nihil humani alienum.* "Unpractical" they style these "humane" studies! Well, there is something to be said about the practical bearings of some of the physical sciences, as now pursued; and when the comparison is fairly made, the classicists will have no occasion to hang their heads. There is a vast deal of scientific work done in this world, that is even less useful than the grammarian's disquisitions on *Hoti* and *oun.*

To-day there is some need, perhaps, to vindicate the old ways. We believe this can be done without disparagement

of the new. The scientists are raising such a din in some quarters that all other voices are drowned. That great good is coming—has already come—out of the discussion, we are confident. That no harm will result, we would not dare to say. Wherever physics quite crowds out the more humane studies, there will be a one-sided and lame development. But the two departments are not incompatible; they are complementary. It is practicable, we are convinced, to get a better, more usable and more useful knowledge of the classics and related studies than has been common for the last generation or two; and at the same time such an acquaintance with the chief sciences, as shall give its possessor the advantage over even the scientific men of the last century. The difficulty is not too much Greek; it is too little of other things, and a bad economy of the time devoted to primary and secondary education.

We had no thought of saying all this—which after all, considering the magnitude of the subject, is saying nothing —when we began. We intended only to call attention to the collection of Essays on Classical Study, edited by Dr. S. H. Taylor of Phillips Academy, and published by W. F. Draper of Andover.

In a 12mo volume of over 400 pages, we find twenty-two discussions, by eminent scholars and teachers, of the topics suggested by the title. Among the writers are John Stuart Mill, Professors Thiersch, Porter, Conington, Thompson and Goldwin Smith, Presidents Felton and Brown, Hon. Hugh S. Legare, and others equally well qualified by experience as well as observation to speak on the matters in debate. Dr. Taylor's Introduction is not the least valuable part of the book. His acknowledged eminence as a teacher, or "educator" as the word now is, gives him a claim to be heard. He has used excellent judgment in making his selections, and has furnished to the friends of classical education a whole armory of weapons for defence, if not for attack. The heads of academies and training schools as well as of colleges—in fact all who have anything to do in shaping or in working courses of instruction, owe it to their office and to the youth under their charge, that they make a thorough

investigation of the whole question of the matter and methods of education. Let them put Dr. Taylor's volume beside that of Dr. Youman's; Professor Porter's little book, "The American Colleges," with the "Essays on Liberal Education," edited by the Rev. F. W. Farrar; and then attempt, at least, to do full justice to the older practice and theories, while not unmindful of the modified Culture demanded by Modern Life.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER VI.

THE dinner bell had sounded. The Count and Doctor Staudner had gone out in a carriage to surprise Mr. Nesselborn by bringing his wife, who stayed on a visit with her father, back to the dinner party. The expedition was successful. The Countess presided at the table. She wore the colors brown, black and yellow, distributed over silk, velvet and crape. Golden bracelets and a golden chaplet with pearls gave her almost the appearance of a princess. Her bearing was high and proud to those she knew, condescending towards strangers, and kind towards the young wife of Mr. Nesselborn. The manner in which the humorous little woman introduced herself, was charming. She told the Countess of her resistance to her forcible abduction by the Count and Doctor Staudner, apologized for her improvised toilette, recognized her husband only by the way, and parenthetically, as it were, expressed her delight at the brilliant arrangements in the chateau, and the beauty and tasteful dress of the Countess.

Doctor Staudner had conducted the Countess to the dining hall, and the Count was Mrs. Nesselborn's partner.

The latter excused her inexhaustible talking with the want of an audience, to which she had become accustomed by her husband's congregation. By her lively conversation she kept the company in perpetual laughter. The Doctor had a position as physician in a celebrated North German watering-place, to which he repaired every summer before the beginning of the season.

Mrs. Nesselborn remarked that there was also a watering-place in her own neighborhood. "It is a sulphur spring," she said, "spreading an abominable atmosphere throughout the neighborhood. Therefore, it is not very popular. A single physician is sufficient, who comes from our village. The way this man waylays his patients is extremely amusing. Of course, he is the first guest himself, revises the springs, the bathing establishments, takes care for the advertisements, and for the accommodations in the single hotel. Every year there is a new hotel-keeper, because every one invariably fails at the end of the year. When the mail coach is due he walks up to the station, scrutinizing every passenger. If he sees a couple of strangers on the promenade, he is thrown into violent excitement, he bows to them, and when they have passed inquires whether they are likely to stay or not. As soon as he can make up a list of a dozen, the names are sent to the papers. I pity the man! To be a graduate of a university, and to work so hard for a living! Rather chop wood!"

There was a roar of laughter at the expense of the Doctor; but the latter took the hit in perfect good nature and heartily joined in the laugh. But Mr. Nesselborn disliked scenes of this kind. He seemed to suffer by these outbursts of frivolity. In his eyes a patient feeling of pain was reflected, which engaged the sympathy of the Countess. She did not listen to her neighbor's talkative little wife, but encouraged him to entertain her with his favorite theme on education. The Count interrupted the conversation:

"You, my dear Mr. Nesselborn," raising his voice so that he could be heard at the other end of the table, "you confound the idealistic views which, from your higher stand-point, you must have as to the aim and object of education, with the pretensions of our common school-masters, who mostly emerge from the very lowest classes of our

population. The little knowledge which these individuals have appropriated, fills them with unmeasured pretensions. We laymen have long forgotten these rudiments in their systematic connection, and certainly would be embarrassed if we should be subjected to an examination in the irregular verbs, in the rules on prime numbers, in the varieties of plants, or the classification of the vertebræ. The schoolmaster, knowing this, erroneously considers his methodical, but very limited knowledge, as the source of all wisdom, and himself as the high priest and prophet of humanity. This fills him with boundless arrogance, and makes him the natural enemy of the higher ranks and the born demagogue among the lower classes."

It was scarcely possible to make harder charges. The Doctor seemed to agree with the Count. Nesselborn was inflamed. His self-control seemed to give way. But his wife prevented an eruption.

"Yes, we are school-masters," she exclaimed. "If my opinion prevailed, my husband would throw aside his black gown, which is not becoming to him. We ought to open a boarding school, such as the one in which I received my education. We were one hundred and twenty girls. We were brought up like the flowers of the fields."

Mrs. Nesselborn amused the company with a humorous description of this school, and concluded:

"I assure you, many a good seed of knowledge has remained in our memories, although we had only three teachers, and sisters at that. Just examine me and try. I know as well as any one that Columbus discovered America, and that a certain Francis Drake introduced the potatoes in Europe."

"By whom has Japan been converted to Christianity?" asked the Count.

"Why," answered Mrs. Nesselborn, "if you ask me so, I have to give it up. But I know that China is surrounded by a big wall."

A general cheerfulness rewarded the fair speaker. Doctor Staudner again returned to the subject:

"Our pedagogues," he said, "ought to be seriously told that in our century the question cannot be to educate men for a dream-land which exists no where but in our fancy.

Good Heavens! We are Germans; Germans of the nineteenth century; artisans, manufacturers, merchants, soldiers, scholars. The problem of life that we have to solve is defined so precisely, that it would be a mere waste of time to allow our educators to make further experiments with their theories, and insult the intelligence of our community by upholding a system incompatible with reality. However ——"

What was to follow was evidently meant to soothe friend Nesselborn's susceptibilities. But the Count interrupted the speaker:

"Yes, we should educate the people for their future positions in life. The school should never try to reach man as such, who is a mere idea without substance, a foundling as it were, a tenant of the desert, who, when leaving school, would not know what to begin in life! How much superior in this respect was Fellenberg to his countryman Pestalozzi! He recognized society as it really is. He did not throw together peasants and barons, future agriculturists and merchants, Russians and Englishmen, but counted both with the future calling of his pupils and with the present position of their families. He did not educate men for Utopia, but for our real world and time."

The eyes of all turned now on Nesselborn, of whom an answer was evidently expected. Nor did he disappoint them.

"All this reasoning," he said, "may be stated as a demand to shorten the time allotted to education. This is indeed a call which is heard like a trumpet-sound in all countries and cities. It is repeated by the roaring engines, the smoking chimneys, and that ant-like bustle which is the image of our whole earthly life within the limits of culture! This whole, teeming world seems incessantly to repeat the question: 'What savings can you effect in the interest of our labor? Let us see the ready-made result which you are able to give us, so that we can immediately utilize it without any further trouble; as the workmen in the finishing-room of a machine shop receive the single parts of the engine ready made from the hands of those who have prepared them.' It is the problem of a division of labor applied to the mind. But there is another problem which education

must solve, the forming of the human mind for the higher objects of life, for the sphere of moral freedom in its highest sense. It is a task of immense difficulty to reconcile these two problems to each other. But it must be solved ——"

During this discourse a servant had approached the Count, and whispered to him that a stranger was waiting who had applied for Wülfing's vacant place. The Count, in a loud voice, gave immediately the order to admit the applicant in the hall, in order to be examined in the presence of his guests.

There was a perceptible tremor on the lips of the Countess, and the haughty woman had the appearance of a statue. "We shall directly have a practical test of my theories on popular education. The new forrester will be directly informed of the reasons why his predecessor has been dismissed. If Wülfing returns, his punishment will be that he must share his duties and privileges with another. We can afford to employ two forresters in the hunting season. Do you not think so, Jadwiga?"

Already heavy steps were heard in the corridor. In this moment the Countess suddenly arose, and turned towards an inner door. She had concealed her face by her handkerchief, so rapidly and convulsively, as if she had a bleeding of the nose. But her motion was not quick enough to prevent the Doctor from hastening to her assistance.

"Please, stay—only for a moment; I am back directly."

With these words Jadwiga disappeared. The bystanders had seen that a nose-bleeding had not been the cause of her rapid flight.

The Count interpreted this hasty withdrawal as intimating her dissatisfaction with his democratic propensities, in which he, by way of exception, had been indulging today. Just because he had pretended that very morning that the Countess should submit as readily to the exceptions as to the rules, he remained passive and indifferent at her departure. Trying to calm the excitement of his guests, he prevailed on them to sit quietly at table, even when the Countess had sent word that her continued indisposition compelled her to remain in her room.

CHAPTER VII.

JADWIGA, while in her room, had learned that Hennenhöft's examination had been unsuccessful. Her sudden withdrawal, while depressing her husband's good humor, had sharpened his judgment. She was told that the bold disciple of Nimrod had introduced himself as an old comrade of Wülfing's, but had nevertheless shown no compunction in getting his place if possible, though he did not even know that the place was really vacant. Hennenhöft had coolly and impudently gazed at all the guests present at table, had boastingly answered the questions directed to him, and the result was that the Count rejected him without assigning reasons. Jadwiga, to her own satisfaction, saw from her window the man pass through the gate with a jeering but furious gesture, and take his way in the direction of the village.

But this did not lighten the burden on her heart. Conflicting resolutions struggled within her for final solution; and all, from every direction, led to guilt and crime. She saw an avenging Nemesis behind every resolution. Even the terrible form of retributive Justice on earth, with sword and balance, arose before her. There seemed only one question left for her. It was not *whether*, but *how* she should execute her purpose! Which way was most expedient! It is often almost an article of faith among the rich and privileged, that the laws are written for the lower orders only.

It was late in the evening when the departure of the guests had left the inmates of the chateau to their regular routine. The Count was walking about his room, as the repeated ringing of a bell sounded from the rooms of the Countess. The servants, hastening through the hall, told him they had received orders to prepare the trunks of the Countess for a journey to the capital. She was to set out next morning.

This projected journey seemed strange to him, and induced him to proceed directly to his wife's rooms. He was surprised when he heard the confirmation of the news from her own lips, and more so when Jadwiga, whom he had never known to be jealous, said to him, "You will certainly

have pastime enough. That precious little woman will stay in our neighborhood for some time yet. She seems to have perfectly enchanted you, and indeed the whole noble company. You will probably see them oftener, and surely they are preferable to your hunting companions. But as for me, my wish is rather to have a quiet life during the summer ——" "But you were always desirous of company," interrupted the Count. "That depends on circumstances. I, too, have sometimes sudden changes in my fancies; and then—I cannot say that I feel so particularly happy ——" "Jadwiga!" exclaimed the Count, trying to seize his wife's hand. "Please do not trouble yourself! How you smell of cigars!"

With these words she stepped back, and when the Count was following her, continued: "Indeed, do not touch me; or have you perhaps profited by Mrs. Nesselborn's example? This beauty has the interesting habit of accompanying her conversation with tapping on the shoulders or grabbling at her neighbor's dress. But, do not believe me jealous. No, indeed; I don't think of it ——"

Count Bernhard kept down his growing temper, and said sarcastically: "You are, indeed, very — lovely to-day." "Lovely ——? Don't you know, my dear, that it may be unpleasant to be lovely in the eyes of some persons—?"

The Count grew pale. The word "Jadwiga" died on his lips. He did not mean to put into this word the expression of grief, but rather that of anger. To submit to a wrong was not in his nature. He considered his wife, and in fact every woman, even the best, as a child to be educated and governed. This was a consequence of his dogmatic nature, which, to his wife, was specially obnoxious. His question, "How do you get that idea," was not in a tone calculated to touch her, but like a taunt, which provoked her anger, till now rather feigned than real.

"Do you play again the schoolmaster, Sir Count?" Reply was forbidden by the entering of the servants, and the Count withdrew, smarting under what he believed an insult to his lordly privileges. He was about to stay the preparations for her intended journey by an order given directly to her attendants. But after some reflection, he desisted from such a breach of decorum, and ordered the tea to his own

room. When he arrived there, the mail-carrier was waiting for him with some parcels, for his collections. This had the effect of restoring, in some measure, the evenness of his temper.

It was now quiet in the castle. The preparations for the journey were proceeding. The Count had not made his appearance again. She almost regretted it, for she would have liked nothing better than to continue her experiments on his temper. She deferred them till next morning. Her thoughts were like a battle-field, in which a regiment is about to storm an intrenchment. The soldiers are mowed down by the enemy's fire, but the officers command "Forward!" That was the command she gave to her heart, and her fear now was that she might slacken in her purpose. Her blood was running feverish through her veins. The very silence, now prevailing, filled her with anguish. Every extinguished light she would have liked to restore. The horn of the night-watchman in the village seemed to sound much too soon; the hands of the clock went much too fast. Now that the moment of departure, which she had hastened, drew nearer and nearer, she began to dread it, and to feel like putting it off. Time went on! and a resolution must be taken. She again pondered over the information she had yesterday received of lawyer Hellwig. A few hours ago she had to struggle against a feeling of shame that had overcome her, in view of the criminal action she was about to commit. That feeling had left her. She was now only following up the different steps and phases of her plan. She would leave the chateau, and never return there again. So much was irrevocably settled. But next, what would she answer, if asked for her reasons? She would give her pleasure as her sole reason. She would simply declare, Count Bernhard could not make her happy! Then, she must travel abroad, conceal her abode. If the Count should find her out,—he would not be admitted; at all events, she would refuse to go back with him.

The clock had already struck eleven. The twelfth hour was drawing to a close, and still she stood at the window. She opened it. The rising moon was just sending her first feeble rays through the clouds. The flower-garden and orchard were in their white garments of blossoms. Her hus-

band's hounds began to whine. She thought that they missed Wülfing, their master; perhaps they disliked the rising moon. But the whimpering of the dogs changed now into that short and low barking which is a sign of joy. Suddenly it ceased entirely. The Countess stepped quickly backward; for it seemed to her as if she heard a whispering voice trying to quiet the dogs. "That is Wülfing," she said to herself. He is coming for his things. She knew that a stroke with his hand had a magnetic power over the dogs, and no other person could silence them so effectually.

The hunter's room was on the first floor of an out-house, directly opposite the new wings of the chateau. The Countess rapidly unlocked the door, and directed her steps to that side of the building where she could have a full view of the opposite out-houses from her conservatory. Having arrived there, she carefully turned up the blinds and found her conjecture fully confirmed. It was Wülfing, who was just climbing down from one of the windows of his room. He picked up a bundle of clothing which he had thrown out before him. There was a whispering. He made some gestures towards that part of the courtyard which lay in the shadow of the house, when Hennenhöft's repulsive form appeared, emerging from the shade into the clear moonlight. He was loaded with divers arms—two guns, several cutlasses, bullet-moulds, and hunting-bags. He handed all this over to Wülfing, who placed some of the pieces apart from the others, evidently because they did not belong to him. In the meanwhile Hennenhöft seemed to examine the lower windows of the castle. He approached carefully and tried the blinds. Being fastened from the inside, they yielded but little. He next pulled some substance from his pocket, the sight of which seemed greatly to frighten his companion. Wülfing made a deprecating gesture, but Hennenhöft clenched his fist towards the Count's rooms. He again groped at the blinds and the walls. Is he going to enter? Will he commit a burglary? Many of the medals and coins in the Count's collection were of silver and gold.

What a wonderful gift of the Deity is language! Or, if man has invented it himself, as the philosophers assert, how wonderful is that invention and its power! And with all

that, how inadequate to express a thought that flits through the soul as quickly as the movement of an eyelid. A world of ideas may be concentrated in such a thought, and yet a thousandth part of a second is sufficient for its conception. Should we endeavor to express in words that spark of combined joy and malice flashing through Jadwiga's soul at the thought that her husband might lose his medals, our description would be lame and heavy. Such a loss would give her almost full satisfaction for the failure of her married life; it would be a lesson for the Count; losing his hobby, he would be punished for his domineering temper and his oddities, which had the same source with the very object of his loss; it would be one of those dispensations by which the valley is revenged for the taunts of the mountain, by which the overbearing pride of man is brought down to the universal level, a state of dependence on chance.

Not quite so rapidly, but by no means gradually, her anticipated triumph was turned into terror. Wülfing leaped to the side of his companion, evidently to prevent the execution of some design; but what design was not yet clear to her. Hennenhöft thrust Wülfing back by main force, and it seemed that the latter was hurt. Then he began to force into the interstices of the blinds a substance which Jadwiga recognized to be cotton-yarn or twine. He pulled from his pocket a bundle of brimstone threads. The blinds were coated with oil-paint, the wood was dry, and if the yarn were kindled, the flame sufficiently supported by the brimstone, must spread with rapidity. Wülfing endeavored again to interfere, but Hennenhöft, without minding his companion, struck a match, and the scene was lighted by the first spark.

In this moment the Countess had unfastened the blind of her window, and throwing the shutter wide open, she exclaimed: "Wülfing, Hennenhöft! Do you wish to go to the penitentiary?"

How these words came over her lips, and just these words, words of warning and threat, and whether she might not be heard through the whole house—of all this she had not the remotest idea. She was appalled, overwhelmed, paralyzed by the terrible picture of the castle in flames! She was unable to utter another word. Her tongue refused its service.

The men fled; Wülfing first. Hennenhöft followed, as it by instinct. The large brimstone bundle was left behind on the ground. The incendiaries took their course close by the window where the Countess was standing. There could not be a question that she was recognized by both. The dogs tore furiously at their chains to follow their master.

In the country people are not prompt to leave their warm beds if by night the watch-dogs of the house become restless. There was no stir in the house. The Countess remained alone with her terror. She stood yet awhile, as if a statue of stone. Then she recollected herself; gradually her power of reflection returned; she listened. The steps of the fugitives had long ceased to sound in the distance. Should she go out of the house? The keys to the doors were inside in their locks. Should she remove the brimstone threads to prevent a new attempt being made? It was a strange combination of thought that induced her to abandon this idea. She stole back to her room, threw herself on her couch, and tried to persuade herself into the belief that she had had an evil dream.

A RIVER IN THE OCEAN.

THERE is a river in the ocean. In the severest drouths it never fails, and in the mightiest floods it never overflows. Its banks and its bottoms are of cold water, while its current is warm. The Gulf of Mexico is its fountain, and its mouth is the Arctic Seas. It is the Gulf Stream. There is in the world no other so majestic flow of water. Its current is more rapid than the Mississippi or the Amazon, and its volume more than a thousand times greater. Its waters, as far out as the Carolina coasts, are of indigo blue. They are so distinctly marked that the line of junction with the common sea water may be traced by the eye. Often one-half of the vessel may be perceived floating in the Gulf Stream water, while the other half is in the common water of the sea, so sharp is the line and want of affinity between these waters; and such too the reluctance, so to speak, on the part of those of the Gulf Stream to mingle

with the waters of the sea. In addition to this there is another peculiar fact. The fishermen on the coast of Norway are supplied with wood from the tropics by the Gulf Stream. Think of Arctic fishermen burning upon their hearths the palms of Hayti, the mahogany of Honduras, and the precious woods of the Amazon and Orinoco!

CORRESPONDENCE.

MR. EDITOR—On page 43 of your January number, I read: "LOUISVILLE, KY., *Dec.* 1870,

"MR. EDITOR—In your Monthly, for November, you have an article on 'Wilhelmshöhe, Napoleon's New Residence.' In the last paragraph you say: 'All this was built by order of Duke Carl of Hesse-Cassel,' etc., but you omit the most significant item, viz.: that it was built by him with the money received by him for the German hirelings (Hessians) aiding England in her attempt to subjugate *us* in the 'Revolutionary war.' This rather detracts from the interest of the *American* reader of your sketch. A TEACHER.

"WILL 'A Teacher' be kind enough to prove the above statement, concerning the money for building 'Wilhelmshöhe' anything more than a mere fable?—EDITOR."

I have not read the article "A Teacher" refers to "On Wilhelmshöhe" of which he seems so much troubled in mind, but as I am just in a very charitable mood, I wish to set "A Teacher's" conscience at rest. "A Teacher" seems to get his *historical facts*, as you justly remark, from nursery-tales and fables. Allow me therefore to state the *real* facts for the interest of the *American* (Know-Nothing?) reader.

I. The fine parks of "Wilhelmshöhe"—formerly called "Weissenstein," and later, when for a season Hesse-Cassel formed part of the kingdom of "Westphalia," Napoleonshöhe—were laid out, in 1701, by the Landgrave KARL, and paid with money obtained from *his own people*, seventy years before the American Revolution.

II. The castle of "Wilhelmshöhe," as the name betokens, was *begun* in 1787, not by the *dead* Landgrave KARL,[1] but by the Landgrave WILHELM IX., who afterwards assumed the title of Elector Wilhelm I. The building-funds were likewise obtained from *his own people*, by heavy taxation.

1 He died in 1730.

III. The builder of Wilhelmshöhe never "hired out" his Hessians to England against the American Republic, nor "received any money" for such a purpose, nor could *he*, as he assumed the government in 1785, and England made peace with the United States in 1783.

This may do, but I am willing to instruct "A Teacher" a little further. The Hessian ruler, whom he had in his *mind?* was the profligate and luxurious Friedrich II.,[2] and who did not leave one farthing of the blood-money he had received from England to his son and successor Wilhelm.

It may seem very smart for "A Teacher" "in the interest of the *American* Reader" to falsify facts, and exhume dead issues to throw innuendoes at the German people—we Germans, however, think it neither just nor generous. The Germans, as a nation, were always friends of the Americans, and have proved it in many ways, and the German portion of our people may safely challenge the patriotism and intelligence of the *American.* What the Germans think of Friedrich II., and his nefarious conduct, may be learned from Schiller's "*Kabale and Liebe,*" of which "A Teacher" may find English translations.

Hartford, January 10th, 1871. L. SIMONSON.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The thirty-seventh annual report of the Supt. of Common Schools, shows a growth and strength in the system of public instruction that must be highly gratifying to all friends of popular education. From the report we gather the following statistics: Number of school districts, 2,002, being an increase for the year of 31; number of schools, 14,212, of which 2,892 are graded; number of teachers, 17,612, of whom 8,739 are female; number of pupils, 828,891; average number of pupils in attendance, 555,941; average length of school term, 6.06 months; average salaries of male teachers, per month, $40.66; of female teachers, $32.39; cost of tuition for the year, $3,745,415.81; total expenditures, $7,771,761.20; value of school property, $15,837,183.00. Of the 11,913 school houses reported to exist, the number of frame is 7,487; of brick, 2,235; of stone,

2 Who died in 1785.

1,536; of log, 391. The Bible is read in 11,016 schools. The average age of teachers is 24½ years. The number of private schools is 386; number of academies and seminaries, 215; number of pupils attending private institutions, 24,815, and number of teachers in such schools, 848. There are now five State Normal schools in operation. They had, during the past year, 66 professors and teachers; 2,675 students, of whom 670 were in the model schools. Four more Normal schools will probably be opened during this year. On questions of State school policy, the report advocates an increase in the State appropriation to Common schools, the establishment of Graded schools wherever it is practicable, the election of Superintendents in all cities and large towns, an enlargement of the present means of professional instruction for teachers, competitive examinations in the selection of young men to fill the cadetships at the national schools of West Point and Annapolis, and the introduction of more general and more systematic moral instruction into schools of all grades. The superintendent supports his positions on all these questions with facts.

ILLINOIS.—The Eighth Biennial Report of the Department of Public Instruction, Hon. N. Bateman, Supt., gives much valuable information concerning the present condition of education. We give only the statistics for 1870. The whole population of the State, according to the United States census of 1870, is 2,549,410; number of persons under twenty-one years, 1,323,092; number between the ages of six and twenty-one, 862,624; number of school districts, 11,006, of which 374 had no schools; average number of days schools sustained, 142; number of male pupils, 344,375; female, 308,340; male teachers, 8,761; female, 11,320; average daily attendance, 339,540; number of school-houses, 10,733; expenditures, $6,017,281.78; average monthly salary of male teachers, $48.35, of female, $36.66; total estimated value of school property, $16,859,300; average rate of special school tax, 7.48 mills; ratio of pupils enrolled to whole number of school-going children in the State, .757; ratio of average daily attendance to same number, .393; cost per pupil, including tuition, incidental expenses, and six per cent. interest on valuation of school property, on number enrolled, $8.38, on average daily attendance, $16.37; highest monthly wages paid to male teachers, $250, to female, $120; lowest monthly wages paid to males, $12, to females, $6.34.

RICHMOND, VA.—In a communication addressed to the N. Y. Board of Education, J. H. Binford, Secretary of the Board of Education, of Richmond, Va., states that he and N. A. Calkins, of the Board of Education of New York

city, had visited the schools of Richmond, and that there are now in that city 39 schools for white, and 33 for colored pupils. A large majority of the Richmond schools are necessarily primary, yet in many of them good progress has been made in the grammar course. One thousand six hundred and fifty-seven pupils are in attendance in the white schools, and 1,659 in the colored schools. Equal facilities for education are furnished in each. The regular attendance in many of the colored schools exceeds that in the schools for the same class of white children. In one of the colored schools visited, the enrolled number of pupils was 117, and the average attendance for the month was 111. To meet the expenses of all the schools for the present year, the City Council has appropriated $142,625.

MASSACHUSETTS.—THE BERKSHIRE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was originated by John E. Bradley, now principal of the Albany Free Academy. Its first president was Hon. E. H. Mills, of the Greylock Institute, South Williamstown. He has been succeeded by Jared Reid, jr., of the Edwards' Place school, Stockbridge; and by Abner Rice, long the principal of the High school in Lee.

The exercises, at the last annual meeting, were of great interest. Mr. Jared Reid, jr., discussed, with much ability, the Development of Manhood as one great object of the teacher. Mr. J. W. Harding, of Long Meadow, lectured on Good Behavior, in its relations to our schools. Mr. Washington Gladden, of North Adams, lectured on the Use of the Beautiful, with very practical, as well as elegant applications. Professor John Bascom, of Williams College, lectured on the subject of Education in its national bearings. Besides these exercises there were discussions on History in schools; on the best means of securing order in school, and on many other important subjects.

Albert Tolman, the principal of the High school at Pittsfield, was elected president for the next year. Among the friends of the Association are many teachers of private schools, one of whom, Rev. C. V. Spear, of Maplewood, Pittsfield, has been an active member since the organization of the Association.

FLORIDA.—A correspondent informs us that "the people are afflicted with debts, ignorance, indolence, and love of whiskey. The State government is unpopular because of imbecile officials, high taxes and low value of scrip. For these causes the public schools are almost, for the present, a failure."

ENGLAND.—The people of England have just had their first public and official vote by ballot for the members of the

new School Board. This Board has been formed in order to enforce popular education. Its duties are to divide London and other cities and towns into districts, ascertain the number of necessitous children, and provide sufficient buildings and instruction for them by a rate. The day of general education, somewhat similar to our American system, has at length dawned on Great Britain.

There was tested in the election a reform which must commend itself to the attention of Americans—the cumulative vote. We do not know that we can better explain the term than by giving an illustration. Suppose there are in a certain district four candidates, Smith, Brown, Davis, and Jones, to be voted for. Each voter can cast a vote for these persons individually, or he can cast four votes for Smith, or four votes for Brown, or two for Davis and two for Jones, or one for Jones and three for Smith. In this way the minority, though outvoted, can not be deprived of a representation. The effect of the cumulative vote is to make the results of an election more perfectly representative of the popular opinion, but in cases where a party is compelled to concentrate its whole strength on one or two candidates, it also tends to elevate the character of the candidate.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

IN his "Elementary Greek Grammar,"[1] Professor Goodwin of Harvard College has produced a school manual of unusual merit. Within the compass of 235 12mo. pages he has given us a tolerably complete, and, for preparatory classes, an altogether sufficient, exhibition of the principles of the Greek tongue, metres, and irregular verbs included! This we would have pronounced impossible. A pretty careful examination of the work enables to say that the author has shown excellent judgment both in his inclusions and omissions. We are at a loss to know what Milton had in his mind, when he wrote: "We have now to hale and drag our choicest and hopefullest wits to that asinine feast of sowthistles and brambles, which is commonly set before them as all the food and entertainment of their tenderest and most docible age,"—unless it were the infinite perplexities of Greek inflection, as then and often since, exhibited. Prof. Goodwin seems to have done whatever is possible to lighten the "laboriousness" of the "first ascent" in the road that leads to a knowledge of the Greek language. It really seems to us that a clever boy might master the whole

1 Boston: Ginn Brothers.

book, as well as do a considerable amount of reading, in the year. Of all the shorter Greek grammars we have yet seen, we give the palm to this without hesitation. The syntax will repay study by collegians and teachers; and particularly those sections in which the subject of modes is handled. If any one has ever succeeded in clearing up the perplexities which hang about certain uses of the Greek verb, Prof. Goodwin is that man. It is expected that a Reader, to accompany the Grammar, will be ready by the beginning of the next school year.

We note, not without some satisfaction, that Prof. Goodwin does not scruple to style the prevalent so-called "English system" of pronouncing Greek, "which saddled the Greek at once with English vowel-sounds and Latin accents," a "monstrosity," and to favor the adoption of a simpler and more consistent method.

SINCE July last the Germans have been, and still are making history rapidly; and, with a proper appreciation of this fact, as well as of the necessity of accuracy, the great publishing house of J. J. Weber, in Leipzig, is issuing a splendid serial work, the "Illustrite Kriegs-Chronik" (The Illustrated War Chronicle), which makes strong appeals to the eye and heart of every native of the "fatherland." It is in folio, each number containing 16 pages, executed in beautiful type, on satin-faced paper, and illustrated profusely with engravings from intercolumnar to full-page size, in the highest style of art. The latter consist of portraits from life of both Prussians and French, now prominent actors in the struggle; sketches, plans of military operations, camp and hospital scenes, skirmishes, pitched battles, etc., taken by artists on the spot, and bringing the scenes of the great conflict vividly home to the apprehension of Americans as well as Germans. The issue commenced in November, and it is proposed to finish it in about twenty weeks by numbers. The record is kept some two months behind the events detailed, so as to secure the most reliable information. The price per number is 25 cents, and B. Westermann & Co., 471 Broadway, N. Y., are the American agents.

It will be singular if the work should not meet with the extensive sale it deserves among all intelligent observers of the great European conflict, and especially among the numerous German population of our country.

THE MINNESOTA HISTORICAL SOCIETY has published the first part of the third volume of its collections. It contains several memoirs of distinguished citizens of the State and of friendly Indians, some historical reminiscences, a translation of Pénicault's "Relation," and other papers of

local interest. What is of most value is Mr. J. F. Williams's very full *Bibliography of Minnesota.*

GILMAN'S "First Steps in English Literature" has already had its third edition published, and has been adopted in many schools in New York, and in the University of Michigan.

MESSRS. IVISON, BLAKEMAN, TAYLOR & CO. have just published "A Short Course in Astronomy and the Use of the Globes," by Henry Kiddle, A. M., Superintendent of the Public Schools in New York city. The publishers have used good taste in getting up the book, and it is safe to say that the author has done his part well.

MESSRS. D. APPLETON & CO., have printed "An Address on University Progress, delivered before the National Teachers' Association, at Trenton, N. J., August 20, 1869, by John W. Hoyt, A. M., M. D., President of the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts and Letters." This little volume embodies the results of much careful investigation, including a personal inspection of the leading universities of Europe and America. The conclusions of the author, as to the means necessary to the improvement of institutions of that class, have received the cordial approval of many of our most prominent educators, and are worthy of the indorsement of all.

The same house has sent us new editions of "Ollendorff's New Method of Learning to Read, Write, and Speak the Italian Language, adapted to the use of schools and private teachers, with Additions and Corrections, by Felix Foresti, LL.D., Professor of Italian in Columbia College," and "A Key to the Exercises in the New Method of Learning to Read, Write, and Speak the Italian, by Prof. Forresti." We are at a loss to know why he is Foresti in one book and Forresti, in the other.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published "Notes, Explanatory and Practical, on the Gospels: designed for Sunday-school teachers and Bible classes, by Albert Barnes." The work is in two volumes, and this is a revised edition.

Also, "Fair France: Impressions of a Traveler, by the author of John Halifax, Gentleman." "The Cryptogram: a novel, by James De Mille." Illustrated.

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2. Tho' life may ap - pear as a des - o - late track, Yet the bread that we cast on the

INST.

reap what we sow. We may try to e-vade them, may do what we will, Our acts, like our
wa-ters comes back. This law was e - nacted by Heav-en a - bove, That like at-tracts

CHORUS *to each stanza.*

shadows, will fol-low us still. For pleas-ure or pain, for weal or for woe, 'Tis the
like,... and love be-gets love.

law of our be-ing we reap what we sow, 'Tis the law of our be-ing we reap what we sow.

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Some are proud of their mansions of brick and of lime,
Of their gardens, with flowers from sunniest clime,
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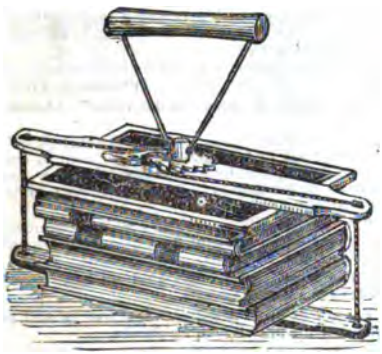

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A Magazine of

Popular Instruction and Literature.

April, 1871.

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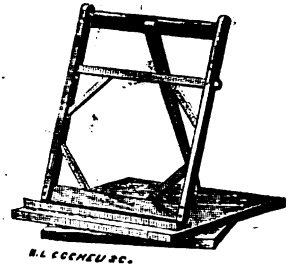

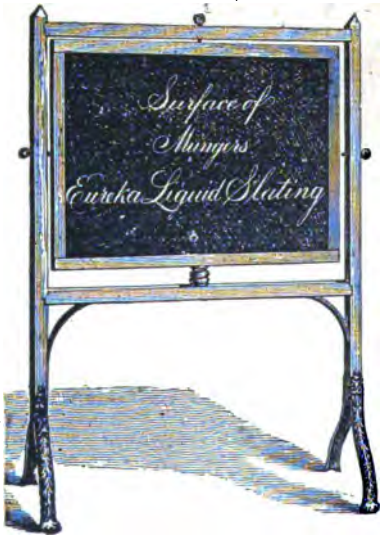

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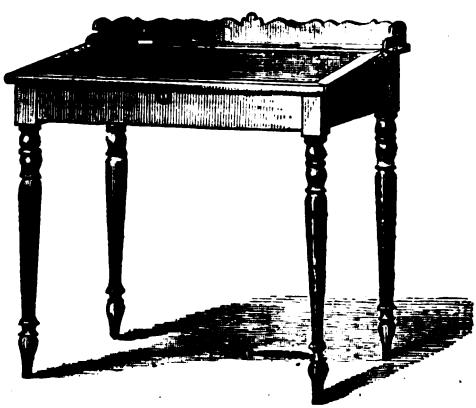

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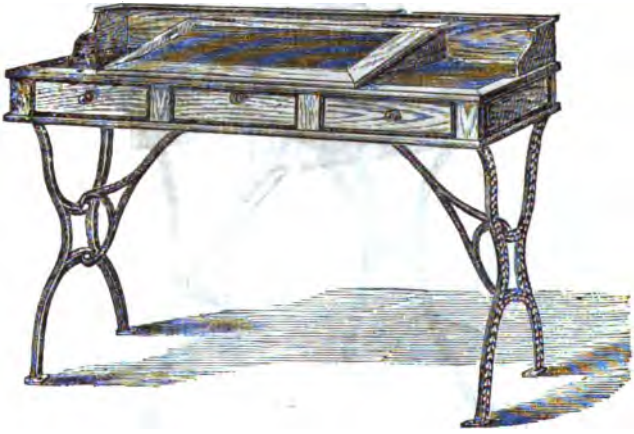

6. The Guilford Desk.

(Size, 24 in. by 45 inches.)

This is a very convenient and graceful desk, with fair capacity. It contains two drawers and a book-box. It has all the necessary qualities of a good desk, and can be recommended for the purpose to which it is adapted. Its iron supports can be readily taken off for safe and cheap shipment.

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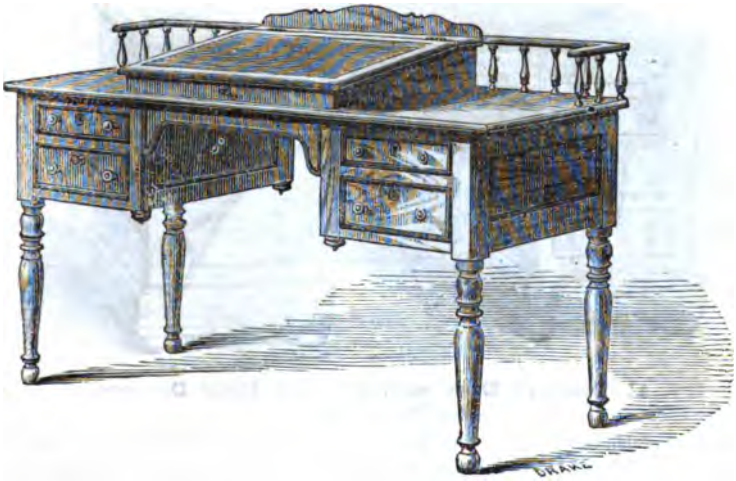

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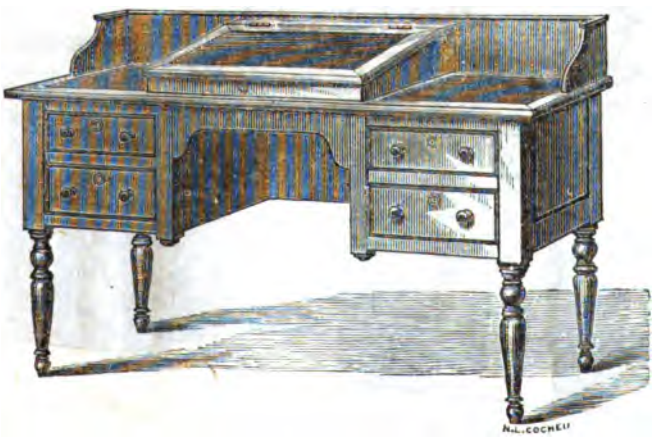
(Size, 24 in. by 52 inches.)

This is a handsome desk. It is made of ash, trimmed with black walnut, finished in panels, front, rear, and ends, having a remarkably graceful and lively appearance. It has four drawers, wide book-box beneath the lid, with ample space for books and papers on both sides of the writing surface.



9. The New Model Desk.

It has the size and capacity, with the general appearance, of No. 8, though plainer and stronger. For this reason it will generally be preferred.

10. The New Model Desk, made of Black Walnut.

11. Teacher's Desk, with Flat Top, Eight Drawers.
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This is an elaborately finished desk, intended for the principal's platform, the side to the school being inclosed. It is made of beautiful grained ash, trimmed with black walnut, and panelled in front and at the ends with fine black walnut trimmings. It has eight drawers, of varied sizes, while the flat top gives ample space for papers, etc. Enamelled cloth covers the top.

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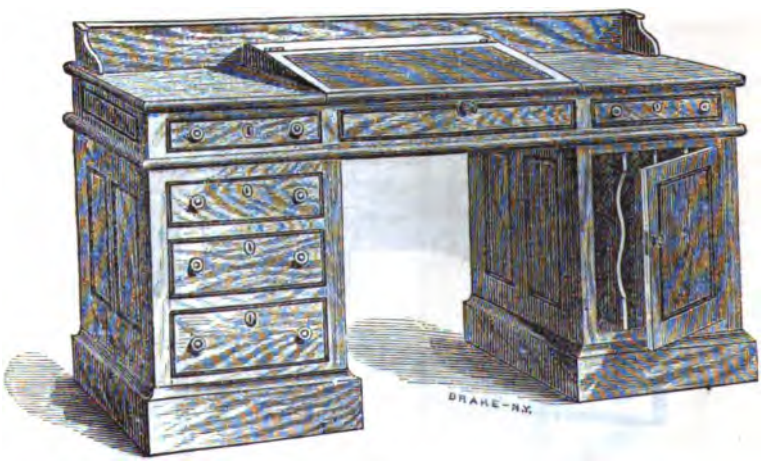

13. The Brewer Desk.
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This desk can be shipped in three sections. It seems complete in all the essential requisites of a first-class principal's desk. It is made of ash, tastefully panelled and trimmed with fine black walnut mouldings.

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This is an elaborate and elegant desk, of very great capacity. Its size is about three feet wide by nine feet long. The front contains closets for storing the books of the pupils, thus supplying the place of book-cases for an entire school. The doors of these closets are so nicely arranged that when closed they will not be observed.

It was originally designed and constructed for the schools of Tremont, N. Y., credit being due to Mr. William Herring, of the School Board, and Mr. George H. Albro, Principal of School No. 1.

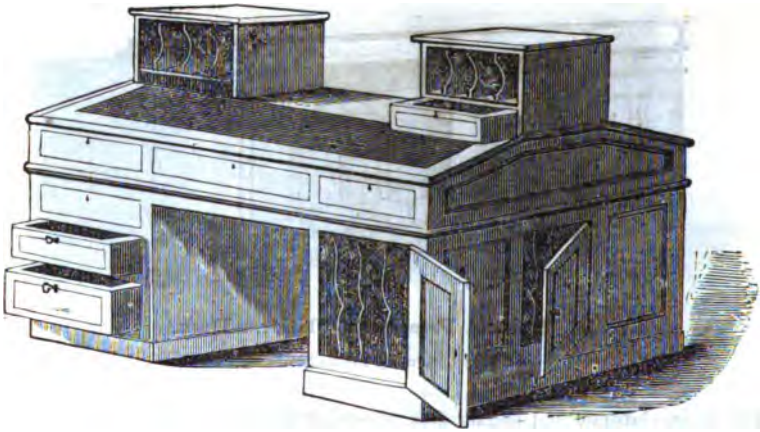
It is made of finely grained ash, panelled and trimmed with black walnut.

The bright color and beautiful grain of the ash, which is used in constructing most of our teachers' desks, show to extra advantage in this desk. It is finished, as usual with all our work, in shellac, and grows brighter and harder with age. No person of good taste will be likely to select for school furniture such woods as grow dark and sombre.

Rear view of No. 15.

Besides the ten drawers and the middle place for records, which show in the cut, there are two large book-boxes under the lids. For the purposes intended we think this desk has no equal. Its appearance would be creditable to any first-class school-room, and would harmonize with the best modern ideas of school furniture.

16. The Same, made of Black Walnut or Mahogany.



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18. Same, of Black Walnut, Billiard Cloth Top.

This extensive desk is required in cities and in large towns. It is built for occupation on both sides. It has many compartments and drawers to accommodate vast business, with ample places for putting away records and account-books, and filing many papers. It is constructed in five parts, for convenience in shipping and in setting up. Being made to order, its size will be varied to suit the demand.

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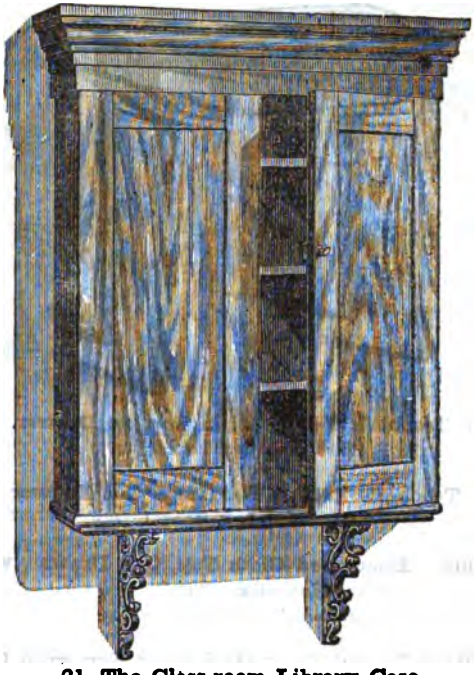
20. Same. Carved Black Walnut, French Polished, Cloth Top, with Gilt Border.

This desk is an improvement on a desk which has been greatly admired. It is a beautiful and convenient article of office or household furniture. It has a capacious box under the lid for books and papers, and a closet on each side, with shelves, etc. It is panelled on all sides.



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Size, three feet by five feet. Four drawers. Made of selected ash, black walnut trimmings, octagon legs.

23. Same, made of Black Walnut, Billiard Cloth Top.

24. Teacher's Table. Plain Top, no Drawer.
(Size, 20 in. by 26 inches.)

25. Teacher's Table. Plain Top, One Drawer
(Size, 24 in. by 36 inches.)

26. Teacher's Table. Enamelled Cloth Top, One Drawer, with Lock and Key (like Cut).
(Size, 24 in. by 36 inches.)

27. Same, in Black Walnut, Enamelled Cloth Top, with Gilt Border.

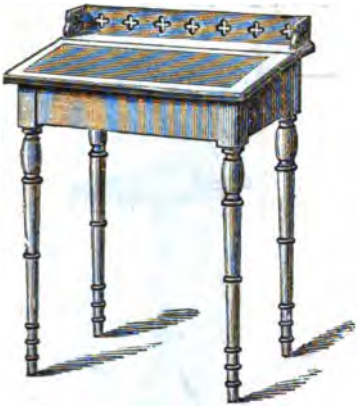
28. Teacher's Table. Plain Top, Two Drawers, with good Locks and Keys.
(Size, 24 in. by 42 inches.)

29. Teacher's Table. Cloth Top, Two Drawers, with Locks and Keys (like Cut).
(Size, 24 in. by 42 inches.)

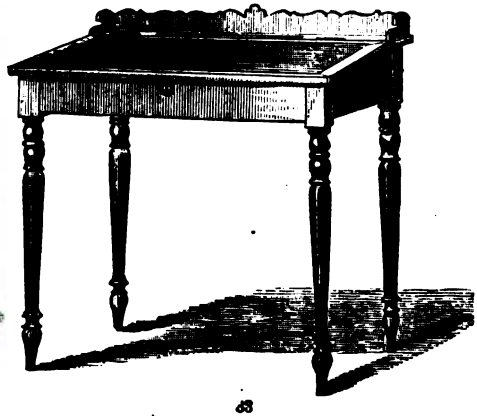
30. Teacher's Table. Cloth Top, Two Drawers, Black Walnut.
(Size, 26 in. by 36 inches.)

Any size or style to order, at proportionate prices.

Home Desks for Children and Adults.



31



33

31. A neat Home Desk for Children, black walnut, with Lock and Key.
32. Ditto, larger, size between 31 and 33 which the cuts illustrate.
33. For Young Ladies—large, with interior Compartments.

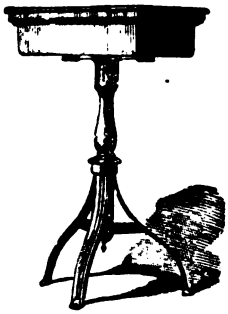
34

35

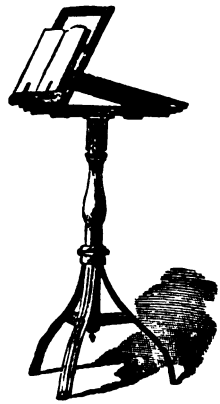
34. Is a pretty and convenient desk, with large drawer in lower part. The upper part contains two little drawers, and several compartments for books, writing materials, etc. The top has two shelves for books, ornaments, etc. The lid is hinged, and closes upward like 35.

35. Is larger and more elaborate, having in addition a closet underneath, with nicely panelled doors. Both these desks are ornamental as well as useful, and are highly appreciated by ladies.

READING STANDS.



36.



37.

The Cuts 36 and 37 illustrate Stagg's Patent Revolving Reading Stands.

Cut 36 shows a stand entirely folded up. It is thus adapted to a variety of school, library, office, or household uses.

37 shows it with book-rack elevated and occupied by a book. The top serves as a brace, as well as a sloping desk on which the reader may make his notes and memoranda. The book is held open by nicely-adapted fingers. **Price, $10.00.**

38.

The Lecturer's Reading Stand (38)

Is a complete book-rest for the public reader. It is readily adjusted to any height, and to any inclination of desk. It has elastic fingers to retain the book or manuscript. It is substantial in construction and elegant in appearance. It is a useful and ornamental article for the private and public library.

In the public schools of New York city it is used as a Bible stand. For general utility it has no equal.

For use in Sunday-schools, lecture-rooms, and public halls there is nothing to equal this reading stand. It has had fair trial, with satisfaction.

The feet are of iron, shaped to give great stability to the stand, even when occupied by a heavy book.

For shipment the feet are readily taken off to render transportation safe and cheap.

Price of Lecturer's Reading Stand, $15.00.

Teachers' and Students' Chairs, etc.

23. Student's Chair.

24. Student's Classical Chair.

23 is an old favorite, made in a very thorough and substantial manner.

24 has a wider and larger desk attached, which moves on a bolt passing through the arm of the chair. It is intended to hold a lexicon, grammar, and another book or two, and will be found specially convenient for students studying classics.

25. "Cornell" Chair.

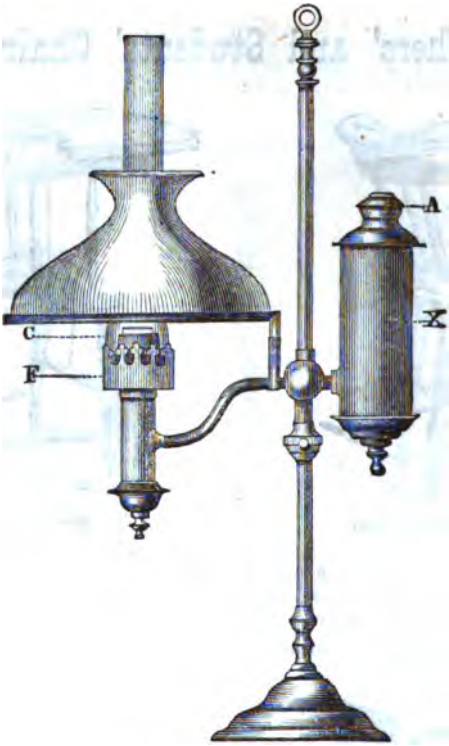
26. Waste Paper Basket.

25 is a very strong chair, with desk attached. It may be screwed to the floor; but will stand well without the screws. For shipping it can be taken apart, and packed flat.

It will be found useful as a Teacher's Chair in the School Room, a Study Chair at home, or a Student's Chair in the College or University Lecture Room. In lengths for several students it is used with great satisfaction in Cornell University, in Rutgers College, in several Theological Seminaries, and in other first-class Educational Institutions.

26. The Waste Paper Basket is a necessary companion to the desk of teachers and others who value tidiness. The cut illustrates only one style, made of "round willow, crossbar work, plain"—several sizes—price . . . . . .60 to .75.

There are elaborate fancy styles and shapes, colored, varying in price, $2.00 to $5.00.



The Teacher's Lamp.

The studious, faithful teacher requires a faithful light to aid him in his preparation for his duties. We have found none equal to

THE SAINT GERMAIN, or GERMAN STUDENT'S LAMP.

It gives a superior, steady light, and with ordinary care will emit neither smell nor smoke. One-twelfth or one-eighth of a heavier oil—sperm, lard, or olive—mixed with kerosene, makes the best and safest oil. Pratt's Astral Oil is recommended for use in this lamp.

Professor Joseph Henry, of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C., considers "it the safest and pleasantest article of the kind he has ever used. It gives a brilliant, unwavering light, very agreeable to the eye. It is safe, since the vapor of the petroleum is entirely cut off from the flame, the reservoir being at a distance from the burning point, and the supply tube constantly filled with the liquid."

These lamps, being imported, may vary in price, depending upon the price of gold. We give prices for the present only:

No. 1.—BRASS SLIDING LAMP, 13 line burner, 7 inch shade, and chimney complete, ...	$8 50
No. 2.—BRASS SLIDING LAMP, 11 line burner, 6 inch shade, and chimney complete, ...	7 50
No. 1 a.—BRASS SLIDING LAMP, double burner, 7 inch shades, and chimneys same as No. 1 single, ...	16 00
No. 1 b.—GERMAN SILVER SLIDING LAMP, 13 line burner, 7 inch shade, and chimney, ...	16 00

Box and packing for shipment will cost $1.00 extra.

NEW AMERICAN
SCHOOL DESKS AND SETTEES.

(Munger's Patents, with Allen's Opera Seat Patent.)

Desk and Settee Combined. **Desk and Settee, Independent.**

THESE Desks and Settees have more points of real merit than any other School Furniture now made.

(1) **They are constructed on strict physiological principles.** The seats and backs are **curved to precisely fit** the persons of pupils—hence **they are most comfortable.**

(2) **The Seats are folding**—permitting pupils **to take and leave their places without difficulty and disturbance**; enabling the teacher **to call up every pupil promptly,** at a given signal; giving **capacity** to the School-room for light **Gymnastics**; admitting **free passages across** the room, and giving opportunity **to clean the floors.**

(3) They are **readily taken apart,** and shipped flat—hence **transportation is very cheap.**

(4) The patented manner of dove-tailing the parts makes **warping, shrinking, and swelling** impossible,—hence they are **enduring.**

(5) They are **superior in appearance,** and finished in workmanship.

(6) And are **cheaper even than most inferior styles.**

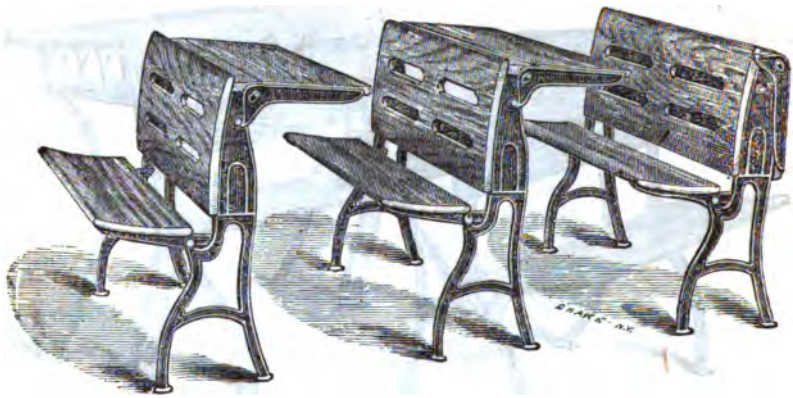
Seven sizes: Children's, Small Primary, Primary, Intermediate, Grammar, High School, Academic.

☞ *Prices given on application.*

OUR

Assembly Room Desks and Settees.

PATENTS APPLIED FOR.



IT is often absolutely necessary that the School Room be used for a general Assembly room for Pupils, for Sunday School, for Public Lectures, and for other Assembly purposes. Hence Furniture which will permit **the School Room to be readily transformed into an Assembly room,** has long been desired. Inventors in this Country and in Great Britain have tried their skill; but with clumsy and expensive results. The achievement illustrated in the above cut is a most decided success.

THIS FURNITURE LEAVES NOTHING UNPROVIDED.

Economy of cost and space; strength and simplicity of construction; ease and rapidity of transforming a School room full of Desks into an

ASSEMBLY ROOM OF SETTEES:

all has been considered and perfectly accomplished. With this Furniture it is no hardship for the School Room to serve the double purpose of School and Public Hall.

The Cut so well shows the construction that detailed description seems unnecessary here. When Desk and Seat are both folded, less than one foot of space is occupied.

The *folding Seat*, (Allen's Patent,) with the *Comfortable Curves* of both back and seat, which have made the **New American School Desks and Settees** so widely famous, do good service in this style.

There are five sizes: Primary, Intermediate, Grammar, High School and Academic.

Price List supplied on application.

AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

APRIL, 1871.

A LEARNED MURDERER.

THE trial of E. H. Rulloff which was concluded at Binghamton in the month of January, will rank as one of the most remarkable in the annals of crime. The wide-spread interest which it has excited was not due merely to the peculiar atrocity of the deed for which the man was arraigned—for Heaven knows! murder is frequent enough in our days of boasted civilization and progress—nor was it owing to the intricacy and complexity in the chain of evidence, but chiefly to the personal characteristics of the accused. Here is a man of great philological pretensions, undeniably endowed with extraordinary abilities, possessed of varied acquirements, and who has, with an almost morbid activity, collected an immense mass of information in various branches of learning, yet a being heartless, soulless, a perfect Mephistopheles, who has gone through a long and checkered career of black and unredeemed villainy.

It would be idle to attempt a solution of the psychological problem which this trial presents. We have gleaned from the different reports furnished at the time a few striking observations and facts which deserve being reproduced here, as setting forth the astounding characteristics and personal traits of this modern Eugene Aram.

In respect to Rulloff's remarkable powers of memory and analysis, Prof. Seelye of Amherst College (who was a student

of theology at Auburn when Rulloff was serving his term in the State prison there, and thus became acquainted with him) gives a signal instance. Prof. Seelye had with him on one of his visits to the prison, where he taught a Sunday-school class, a copy of Taylor Lewis's book "Plato Contra Atheos,' containing Plato's famous argument for the existence of a God, translated into English. Rulloff desired to borrow the book, and did so. On returning it, he had written on loose leaves, here and there, criticisms on the translation and on the argument of the original, in which he had cited from memory, as is believed, many pages in Greek from Herodotus, Thucydides, Anacreon, Homer, and other authors, usually with great correctness and pertinence. The whole was done by him in his cell, yet it was a piece of scholarly work, such as few professors could excel writing amid the resources of their well-equipped libraries. In point of penmanship it was exquisite and like a finished engraving.

In the Binghamton *Republican*, of Jan. 21, appears a remarkable letter, in which the writer—a distinguished and well-known lawyer, Mr. A. B. Richmond, of Meadville, Pa. —states that, about twelve years ago, Rulloff, under the assumed name of James Nelson, came to his office with the view of obtaining an agency for selling a patent machine invented by Mr. Richmond. "James Nelson," at that time pursued for burglary, was dressed in cheap, plain garments, looking like a farmer. "He had a face," the writer says, "which once seen, could never be forgotten. I saw from the tone of his voice that he was evidently a gentleman of culture and education. I showed him the machine, and asked him if he could construct a model. 'Yes,' said he, 'I am a fine mechanic.' We went into the collection-room, and first came to a case containing marine shells. The shells had been lying on cards, and some visitors who had been examining them had transposed some. 'Nelson' immediately stopped and called my attention to the fact, saying: 'Mr. Richmond, that is certainly not correct. That shell is not correctly labelled. That is surely not *Spondylus Spinosus*, but the *Argonauta*.' I found, upon further conversation, that he was perfectly familiar with the science of conchology, and equally well acquainted with mineralogy. My astonishment

increased when a little further along, he picked up the skull of an Indian that had been found on a Western battle-field, and remarked: 'Ah! that man received a terrible blow on the right *parietal* bone. See, it has fractured the temporal bone and *zygomatic process*.' He further remarked: 'He must have been a man of considerable age, as the *lambdoidal suture* is almost obliterated.' Upon further conversation with him I found that he was a fine anatomist. We passed then to the case of insects, and he proved well acquainted with entomology, naming the insects in my collection as readily as I could. By this time my surprise was unbounded, as I had had many learned men visit my collection, but never found one that seemed to understand so well *all* the sciences connected with the objects in my museum. 'Nelson' passed round the collection, and repeated a quotation in Latin, with which, by mere chance, I happened to be familiar. Then he repeated a sentence in Greek. I discovered that he was evidently trying to exhibit his best phases intellectually, and remarked to him that it was something unusual to find a visitor so well acquainted with the sciences and languages. He then took from his pocket a certificate from the late Rev. Dr. Barker, President of Alleghany College, in which he stated that he had examined Mr. James Nelson in Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French and German, and that he took pleasure in testifying 'that he had found him one of the best linguists it was ever his good fortune to meet.' We then passed into the laboratory, where I found him perfectly familiar with all the tests for detecting poisons, and apparently as much so with my galvanic, electrical, magnetic and chemical aparatus, as I was myself, or even more so." In another portion of Mr. Richmond's letter it is stated that Nelson (always working at night) "constructed a beautiful model, which was, in the end, exquisitely carved and ornamented."

Without vouching for the accuracy of the above extracts from Mr. Richmond's letter, and conceding that his statements may be somewhat overdrawn, they certainly go far to prove that Rulloff's linguistic and scientific attainments were of no mean order.

Rulloff's conduct of his defense, both at his trial in 1843, when he was arraigned for the murder of his wife and child,

and the one concluded in January of the present year, was marked by a singular intellectual delight and an impersonal interest, as if he felt simply the advocate's pride in his legal acumen. He received his sentence not with defiance, but with a cool indifference, an amused smile at the judge's advice to prepare for a future life, and a laugh with his counsel as he sat down. The statement of his religious belief which Rulloff gave to Prof. Seelye many years ago, was a curious mixture of Greek Pantheism and modern materialism. He did not then, any more than he does now, appear to have any moral misgivings as to his course of life, but regarded himself as a person misunderstood and injured by society.

But it would seem that mentally he was yet more errant than morally. He seemed fully endowed with the pride of intellect and believed in the high value of his life-work, a Treatise on Language. This "Method in the Formation of Language" he had pressed on the attention of literary and scientific men, personally and by letter, until he was voted a fearful bore. He wanted to sell it to the philological convention at Poughkeepsie, a year ago last July, for the mere bagatelle of half a million of dollars. In discussing his theory, he seemed on the verge of maniacal enthusiasm. In a communication to the Binghamton *Leader*, dated January 16th, Rulloff says: "Strange as it may seem, no man this day upon God's earth has lived with a higher object than myself, and few have accomplished a more desirable result. Though laboring under every disadvantage, I have steadily persisted, and even now a few words may be said by way of insuring success to the work upon which my health, my strength, and all the best energies of my life have been expended, that is, my work upon 'Method in the Formation of Language.' That work may now have to be published without being completed. It contains, in the form of a regular treatise, most of the principles connected with the formation of methodical language." If we may judge from some specimens, which Rulloff gives in the *Leader*, his theory is, indeed, incoherent and unintelligible. Nevertheless, his illustrations show sound scholarship, patient investigation, and a wide range of reading. He can hardly be set down as a superficial thinker or scholar, though his conclusions are often far astray and absurd. From some additional

samples of his "great work," which were subsequently given to the *Leader*, we must infer that it is a perplexing mixture of strength and weakness. It appears that according to his root theory all languages own one central origin, the words of one tongue being found in others, either spelled backward or altered by the priests in some conventional manner.

It will, indeed, be a startling discovery for modern philologists, to learn that their theory of an original formation for all the European languages is a grossly erroneous one, and that the true explanation of the growth of words is "that the priests of different countries formed, for their own purpose, separate tongues," and that "each took for special purposes, within his own language, some particular form of root, and manipulated that form systematically in the production of nearly related words." This astounding theory does not explain under what forms men conveyed their thoughts previous to this priestly *hocus pocus*, and in what way this powerful and learned caste induced the plain, practical people of the lower classes to attach any intelligible meaning to their arbitrary combinations. The formidable problem of how men reached that advanced stage of society necessary to the existence of so learned and ingenious a priesthood without first having a well-defined language, is left equally without elucidation.

In short, it is quite evident from the few fragments of the "great work" which have been thus far vouchsafed to an inquiring world, that the author was a much better murderer than philologist.

It seems a piece of poetic justice that the very work on which Rulloff bases his hollow pretensions as a profound scholar should have been the chief instrument in his final ruin, for his manuscript was one of the proofs that established his identity. A newspaper cutting, found in his desk at his quiet retreat in New York, contained part of an article on a special subject, whose other portion was contained in a whole paper in one of the burglars' valises abandoned in Binghamton.

In fine, without resorting to the latest legal fiction, according to which "no criminal can claim moral sanity," for "otherwise he would be no criminal," it is hardly possible

to resist the query, Was this man sane? There seems to be enough in the felon's history to make out a very plausible plea of insanity. His knowledge of the criminal code was such that he often, under assumed names, appeared as counsel for men charged with crimes which he himself had planned, and he generally succeeded in managing their case so well that he obtained their acquittal. It cannot be doubted that if, at the last trial, he had not been his own attorney, the plea of insanity might, and probably would have been successfully advanced.

The strange parallelism between the career of Rulloff and that of another felon who expiated his crime more than a century ago, is so striking that we do not wonder that Rulloff has been dubbed the modern Eugene Aram. Like the hero of Bulwer's "Strange Story," Rulloff was or claimed to be a philologist, was learned in law, and conducted his own defense when on trial for life. In him as well as in the Yorkshire usher, criminal tendencies were offset by an abstract and earnest devotion to study. A student through instinct, he became a felon by choice. His whole essence concentrated itself in the unwarmed, uncongenial arrogance of intellect. A heartless villain with no compunction, no conscience, he maintained a decorous outward conduct as a matter of policy. During his residence in jail, where he served out a term of ten years, he so thoroughly won the confidence of the jailor and his wife, that their son was put under his tutelage. This boy, innocent and eager for instruction, Rulloff trained into the felon Jarvis, who met an ignominious death in the Chenango river on the night of the Binghamton burglary and murder.

Rulloff, the unsuspected "teacher of languages," who is now known to have caused, directly and indirectly, the death of seven persons (including himself) seems, as one reporter aptly remarks in reviewing his history, to have read Gœthe's Faust, and made the successful effort of combining in one person the three characters of Faust, Wagner, and Mephistopheles.

F. H.

Stockbridge, Mass., February, 1871.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?

III.

OUR first step must obviously be to classify, in the order of their importance, the leading kinds of activity which constitute human life. They may be naturally arranged into:—1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation; 2. Those activities which, by securing the necessaries of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation; 3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring; 4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations; 5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.

That these stand in something like their true order of subordination, it needs no long consideration to show. The actions and precautions by which, from moment to moment, we secure personal safety, must clearly take precedence of all others. Could there be a man, ignorant as an infant of all surrounding objects and movements, or how to guide himself among them, he would pretty certainly lose his life the first time he went into the street: notwithstanding any amount of learning he might have on other matters. And as entire ignorance in all other directions would be less promptly fatal than entire ignorance in this direction, it must be admitted that knowledge immediately conducive to self-preservation, is of primary importance.

That next after direct self-preservation comes the indirect self-preservation, which consists in acquiring the means of living, none will question. That a man's industrial functions must be considered before his parental ones, is manifest from the fact that, speaking generally, the discharge of the parental functions is made possible only by the previous discharge of the industrial ones. The power of self-maintenance necessarily preceding the power of maintaining offspring, it follows that knowledge needful for self-maintenance has stronger claims than knowledge needful for family welfare—is second in value to none save knowledge needful for immediate self-preservation.

As the family comes before the State in order of time—as the bringing up of children is possible before the State exists, or when it has ceased to be, whereas the State is rendered possible only by the bringing up of children; it follows that the duties of the parent demand closer attention than those of the citizen. Or, to use a further argument—since the goodness of a society ultimately depends on the nature of its citizens; and since the nature of its citizens is more modifiable by early training than by any thing else; we must conclude that the welfare of the family underlies the welfare of society. And hence knowledge directly conducing to the first, must take precedence of knowledge directly conducing to the last.

Those various forms of pleasurable occupation which fill up the leisure left by graver occupations—the enjoyments of music, poetry, painting, etc.—manifestly imply a pre-existing society. Not only is a considerable development of them impossible without a long-established social union; but their very subject-matter consists in great part of social sentiments and sympathies. Not only does society supply the conditions to their growth; but also the ideas and sentiments they express. And, consequently, that part of human conduct which constitutes good citizenship is of more moment than that which goes out in accomplishments or exercise of the tastes; and, in education, preparation for the one must rank before preparation for the other.

Such then, we repeat, is something like the rational order of subordination:—That education which prepares for direct self-preservation; that which prepares for indirect self-preservation; that which prepares for parenthood; that which prepares for citizenship; that which prepares for the miscellaneous refinements of life. We do not mean to say that these divisions are definitely separable. We do not deny that they are intricately entangled with each other in such way that there can be no training for any that is not in some measure a training for all. Nor do we question that of each division there are portions more important than certain portions of the preceding divisions: that, for instance, a man of much skill in business but little other faculty, may fall further below the standard of complete

living than one of but moderate power of acquiring money but great judgment as a parent; or that exhaustive information bearing on right social action, joined with entire want of general culture in literature and the fine arts, is less desirable than a more moderate share of the one joined with some of the other. But after making all qualifications, there still remain these broadly-marked divisions; and it still continues substantially true that these divisions subordinate one another in the foregoing order, because the corresponding divisions of life make one another *possible* in that order.

Of course the ideal of education is—complete preparation in all these divisions. But failing this ideal, as in our phase of civilization every one must do more or less, the aim should be to maintain *a due proportion* between the degrees of preparation in each. Not exhaustive cultivation in any one, supremely important though it may be—not even an exclusive attention to the two, three, or four divisions of greatest importance; but an attention to all,—greatest where the value is greatest, less where the value is less, least where the value is least. For the average man (not to forget the cases in which peculiar aptitude for some one department of knowledge rightly makes that one the bread-winning occupation)—for the average man, we say, the desideratum is, a training that approaches nearest to perfection in the things which most subserve complete living, and falls more and more below perfection in the things that have more and more remote bearings on complete living.

In regulating education by this standard, there are some general considerations that should be ever present to us. The worth of any kind of culture, as aiding complete living, may be either necessary or more or less contingent. There is knowledge of intrinsic value; knowledge of quasi-intrinsic value; and knowledge of conventional value. Such facts as that sensations of numbness and tingling commonly precede paralysis, that the resistance of water to a body moving through it varies as the square of the velocity, that chlorine is a disinfectant,—these, and the truths of Science in general, are of intrinsic value: they will bear on human conduct ten thousand years hence as they do now. The

extra knowledge of our own language, which is given by an acquaintance with Latin and Greek, may be considered to have a value that is quasi-intrinsic: it must exist for us and for other races whose languages owe much to these sources; but will last only as long as our languages last. While that kind of information which, in our schools, usurps the name History—the mere tissue of names and dates and dead unmeaning events—has a conventional value only: it has not the remotest bearing upon any of our actions; and is of use only for the avoidance of those unpleasant criticisms which current opinion passes upon its absence. Of course, as those facts which concern all mankind throughout all time must be held of greater moment than those which concern only a portion of them during a limited era, and of far greater moment than those which concern only a portion of them during the continuance of a fashion; it follows that in a rational estimate, knowledge of intrinsic worth must, other things equal, take precedence of knowledge that is of quasi-intrinsic or conventional worth.

One further preliminary. Acquirement of every kind has two values—value as *knowledge* and value as *discipline*. Besides its use for guidance in conduct, the acquisition of each order of facts has also its use as mental exercise; and its effects as a preparative for complete living have to be considered under both these heads.

These, then, are the general ideas with which we must set out in discussing a *curriculum*:—Life as divided into several kinds of activity of successively decreasing importance; the worth of each order of facts as regulating these several kinds of activity, intrinsically, quasi-intrinsically, and conventionally; and their regulative influences estimated both as knowledge and discipline.—*Herbert Spencer.*

THE new educational laws of England have directed public attention to text-books. One writer declares that "it is hardly an exaggeration to say that there does not exist such a thing as a good English grammar."

EMINENT TEACHERS AND EDUCATORS DECEASED IN 1870.

SEELY, JOSEPH, a veteran teacher of New York, died in that city in September, 1870, aged 97 years. He was a native of Connecticut, but removed to New York city in early manhood and taught there for nearly sixty years.

SHANAHAN, Rev. JOHN, a Roman Catholic clergyman, a native of Kilkenny, Ireland, who had also been a missionary, and for some years a professor in the Roman Catholic College at Emmettsburg, Maryland, died in New York city, August 8, 1870, aged 78 years. He was a very accomplished writer and rhetorician, and his reputation as a teacher of rhetoric and belles-lettres was very high. The present and late Archbishops of New York, Bishop Whalen, of Wheeling, and the late Bishop Fitzpatrick, of Boston, with many other eminent clergymen, were among his pupils.

SIMPSON, Sir JAMES YOUNG, M.D., D.C.S., an eminent Scottish teacher, physician, author, and discoverer, died in Edinburgh, May 7, 1870, aged 59 years. He was educated at the University of Edinburgh, graduating M.D. in 1832, was appointed obstetrical professor in the University in 1840, and continued to teach that branch of medical study till his death. He discovered the value of sulphuric ether and choloform as anæsthetics in accouchment, and was greatly honored for his success in their use. He was the author of several professional text-books and other works on educational subjects. He was made a baronet in 1866, and the same year received the honorary degree of D.C.L. from Oxford University.

STEVENSON, Rev. PAUL EUGENE, a Presbyterian clergyman, long engaged in teaching the classics, died in Paterson, N. J., March 17, 1870, aged 61 years. He was first led to teaching by the failure of his health as a preacher, but soon became enthusiastic in his work, for which his thorough and elegant scholarship and his remarkable tact in imparting instruction peculiarly fitted him.

STONE, Rev. COLLINS, an eminent teacher of the deaf and dumb, was killed by the collision of a locomotive with his

carriage, in Hartford, Conn., December 23, at the age of 58 years. He was a native of Canton, Conn.; born in 1812; graduated from Yale College in 1832; entered the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford in 1833, and giving the best powers of a remarkably well-disciplined mind to the work of their instruction, constantly advanced in position till 1852, when he was appointed Principal of the "Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb," at Columbus, Ohio. He conducted that institution with remarkable success till 1863, when on the resignation of Rev. W. W. Turner, he was elected Principal of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford, the first and the most influential of all the institutions for deaf mutes in the country. Mr. Stone presided over this institution with singular ability till his sudden death. As a teacher of deaf mutes, Mr. Stone had few equals, and no superiors.

STÖVER, MARTIN LUTHER, Ph. D., LL.D., a professor, editor, author, and philanthropist, of Gettysburg, Penn., died in Philadelphia, July 22, aged 50 years. He was born at Germantown, Pa., February 17, 1820; graduated from Gettysburg in 1838; taught one year in Jefferson, Md., and in 1839 was called to a professorship, first, we believe, of Mathematics, and subsequently of the Latin language and Literature at Gettysburg. He was also for many years editor of the *Evangelical Quarterly Review*, the organ of the Lutheran Church, and has found time for the preparation of several able biographical works. He was very active in labors for the wounded during the late war.

SYME, JAMES, M.R. C.S., L. & E., an eminent Scottish professor, surgeon, and author, born in the County of Fife in 1799, died at Edinburgh, June 26, 1870, aged 71 years. He was educated at the University of Edinburgh, and became pupil in surgery of the celebrated Liston. He studied surgery also in London, and was admitted a member of the Royal College of Surgeons there. Returning to Edinburgh in 1822, he was associated as pupil and assistant with Liston for seven years longer, and in 1825 began to lecture on surgery with great success. He would have been elected professor at once, but declined to be a candidate in order not to wound the feelings of Liston. In 1833, he accepted

the professorship of Clinical Surgery, and the next year Liston went to London as professor. On the death of Liston, in 1847, Dr. Syme was called to succeed him as professor at London, but being treated rudely by the other professors, he resigned and returned to his professorship at Edinburgh, where he continued to teach till his death. He wrote numerous professional works of great ability, and had a very high reputation as an instructor, serving in that capacity for forty-five years.

THOMSON, Right Rev. EDWARD, M.D., D.D., LL.D., Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church since 1864, and previously for twenty-three years a teacher and college president, died at Wheeling, West Virginia, March 22, aged 60 years. Bishop Thomson was born in Portsea, England, in October 1810, emigrated to the United States in 1819, and settled in Wooster, Ohio, about 1822. He had an excellent academic education, studied medicine, and graduated M.D., at the University in Pennsylvania in 1829. He returned to Wooster, Ohio, to practice his profession, and formed an infidel club there. He was soon converted, joined the Methodist Church, and in 1833 began to preach. In 1836 he was located at Detroit, where his extrordinary eloquence drew great crowds to hear him. In 1837 he was called to the Principalship of the Norwalk (Ohio) Seminary, where he remained eight years. Elected editor of the *Ladies' Repository* by the General Conference in 1844, he was the next year chosen first President of the Ohio Wesleyan University at Delaware, O., where he remained fifteen years, and made the University a leading institution among Western colleges. In 1860 he was called to the editorship of the *Christian Advocate* in New York, and in 1864 elected Bishop. His reputation both for learning and eloquence was deservedly very high. He was the author of four or five works of great literary merit. After his election as Bishop, he made an episcopal tour round the world.

VANGEROW, CHARLES ADOLPHE VON, J.U.D., a German jurist, law professor, and author, born in Scheffelbach, Electoral Hesse, June 5, 1808; died at Heidelberg, October 11, 1870, aged 62 years. Prof. Vangerow was educated at the University of Marbourg, became Doctor of Laws (J.U.D.)

in 1830, a Fellow of the University, and Adjunct Professor. In 1837 he was made a full professor at Marbourg, and in 1840, called to the Chair of Roman Law in the University of Heidelberg, where he continued till his death. He was the author of numerous very learned works on Romish and civil law. He had been chosen Counsellor of the Court in 1842, and Privy Counsellor in 1849.

VAN KLEEK, Rev. RICHARD D., a Reformed (Dutch) clergyman, for many years engaged in teaching, died in Jersey City, N. J., May 27.

VILLEMAIN, ABEL FRANCOIS, a celebrated French professor, author, and statesman, perpetual Secretary of the French Academy, born in Paris, June 11, 1790; died there May 10, 1870, aged 80 years. M. Villemain's whole life was devoted to the cause of education. During his early training at the Imperial Lyceum, while not more than twelve years of age, the professor of rhetoric often called him to his chair and gave him charge of his class. In 1810, he was appointed Assistant Professor of Rhetoric in the Lyceum Charlemagne. Two or three years later, he was Assistant Professor of Modern History to M. Guizot, at the Sorbonne. In 1816 he was appointed Professor of French Eloquence in the Sorbonne, and retained the position for ten years, distinguishing himself meantime by his admirable memoirs, his brilliant dramas, and his eloquent historical essays. He was elected to the French Academy in 1821; and in 1826 resigned his professorship at the Sorbonne to take a more active part in political life. In 1827, he resumed his lectures at the Sorbonne. In 1830 he was elected a member of the Chamber of Deputies, and took part in the revolution of July in that year. In 1831 Louis Philippe appointed him a member of the Royal Council of Public Instruction, and the next year its Vice-President, a position which he held till 1845. From 1839 to 1840 he was Minister of Public Instruction. He attempted, but necessarily without success, to unite the conflicting parties of the nation on a law for free secondary instruction. His health failed at this time, and after its restoration he refused all office, but devoted himself to literature, history, and education.

VERPLANCK, GULIAN CROMWELIN, LL.D., an American

scholar, professor, jurist, and philanthropist, born in New York city, August, 1786, died March 18, 1870. Mr. Verplanck, though a gentleman of wealth, leisure, and elegant scholarship and refined tastes, devoted a large portion of his long life, directly and indirectly, to the interests of education. Graduating from Columbia College at the age of fifteen, he subsequently studied law very carefully, and formed a wide and thorough acquaintance with English literature as well as that of modern Europe generally. At the age of 35 he was appointed Professor of Evidences of Revealed Religion and Moral Science in its relation to Theology in the General Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church. He performed the duties of this professorship with great ability for four years, preparing, in addition to his teaching, one of the best treaties extant on the "Evidences." He was elected to Congress in 1825 and served eight years, and in addition to many other excellent measures, pushed through a good copyright bill. In 1826 he was appointed a member of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, and in 1855 Vice-Chancellor, and served in these capacities faithfully for forty-four years. From 1847 to his death he was one of the Commissioners of Emigration; from 1834 to 1841, one of the Trustees of the Public School Society, and from 1823 to 1865, one of the Governors of the New York Hospital.

WESTERMANN, ANTOINE, Ph. D., a German professor of history and ancient literature, and author, born in Leipsic, June 18, 1806, and died there June 16, 1870, aged 64 years. He was educated at the University of Leipsic, appointed lecturer in 1830, and adjunct professor in 1832, and professor of history and ancient literature in 1834, and retained the position till his death. He was one of the principal founders of the Society of Sciences in Leipsic in 1846, and author of numerous works.

WASHINGTON, WILLIAM D., an eminent artist and professor of the fine arts in the Virginia Military Institute, died at Lexington, Va., on the 1st of December, 1870.

WILLARD, Mrs. EMMA (HART), eminent both as a teacher and pioneer in the work of female education, died in Troy, N. Y., April 15, 1870, aged 83 years. Among all the names

of distinguished educators who passed away during the year 1870, there are none who have accomplished so much for the education of the masses, and especially for the education of women, as Mrs. Willard. Born in Berlin, Conn.. February 23, 1787, of highly intelligent and cultivated parentage, with a mind which delighted in grappling with difficulties, and an energy so indomitable that it never lost its power to her dying day, she was well qualified to be a leader. She was, beyond the scanty measure of instruction to be obtained in the district schools of that day, almost wholly self-educated; and when at the age of eighteen, she commenced teaching, the novelty and thoroughness of her methods, and the amount of practical knowledge she imparted, soon rendered her distinguished through the neighboring towns. In 1809, she married Dr. Willard, and for the time abandoned teaching, but in 1814, financial reverses caused her to return to her true calling, and she opened a school for girls at Middlebury, Ct. After four years of incessant labor and struggle, she was able to grasp the whole of the great problem of female education. She resolved to found a seminary for girls which should be worthy of the name, and fixed upon Waterford, near Troy, as the site. Governor De Witt Clinton gave her his powerful influence and effective support. In 1820 the citizens of Troy offered her a building if she would remove her seminary to their city. She accepted their offer in May, 1821. In 1825, her husband died. She carried on the seminary with the greatest success till 1838, when her son and his wife relieved her of further care. During all this time she labored unweariedly for the establishment of seminaries for the higher education of women all over the country. Of nearly 4,000 pupils who had been under her instruction large numbers became teachers, and the opportunities of female education in this country, largely in consequence of her zealous efforts, are superior to those of any other country.

WRIGHT, Rev. LUTHER, for forty-eight years the able principal of the East Hampton Academy, Mass., and one of the most efficient teachers of our time, died at East Hampton in Oct. 1870, aged about 73 years. He was a graduate of Yale College, and had devoted himself to teaching as the one aim and purpose of his life, and with the greatest success, as thousands of his pupils can testify.

MOUNT HOLYOKE.

MOUNT HOLYOKE, the Rigi of Massachusetts, is situated two miles from Northampton, on the east side of the Connecticut River. It is 1,175 feet above the sea, and about 1,000 above the river. Few mountains, of the same height, in this country, are surrounded with such beautiful scenery on every side; here are the grand and the beautiful united. Just as we arrived at the summit, the sun was setting in his glorious beauty, lighting up the beautiful Connecticut valley and river with his crimson glow; scarcely had the glittering god disappeared, than the moon, in her soft majesty, arose, softening the scene, and when the distant and numerous villages were lighted up, it seemed more like fairy land than reality. One can see with the naked eye one hundred and fifty miles, and the mountains of four different States are plainly visible, viz.: Monadnock, N. H.; Green, Vt.; East and West Rock, New Haven, Conn.; Greylock, Wachusett, Sugar Loaf, Norwottuck, Toby, Tom, and Nonotuck, Mass. Thirty-eight towns and villages can be seen with the aid of the telescope, thirty-one in Massachusetts and seven in Connecticut. Looking down in the plain, nearly a thousand feet below, the great fields and acres look like small garden plots; an island directly in front of Prospect House, seems to be about the size of a steamboat—in reality it is a strip of twenty acres; another little dot by the valley has eight thousand acres in it,—and the beautiful river, like a silvery thread, now straight, now curving, now graceful, encircling Oxbow Island, winds in and out through the landscape as far as the eye can see. Dr. Holland, in his history of Western Massachusetts, gives the following statement as to the name of the mountain: "A company of the first settlers of Springfield went northward to explore the country. The party, headed by Elizur Holyoke, went up on the east side of the river, and another, headed by Rowland Thomas, went up on the west side. The parties, arriving abreast at the narrow place in the river, below Hochanum, at what is now called Rock-ferry, Holyoke and Thomas held a conversation with one another across the river, and each, then and there, gave his name to the mountain, at whose feet he stood.

The name of Holyoke remains uncorrupted and without abbreviation, while Mount Thomas has been curtailed to simple and homely 'Tom.'" A foot-path, in olden times, led to the Prospect House, but now, in this age of steam, such an old-fashioned method is quite abolished, and we have a railway, or staircase, which draws the passengers up, almost perpendicularly, six hundred feet. The car is drawn by the action of three horses at the base; we were informed, last summer, that two thousand five hundred people had been drawn up in the car, and no accident has yet occurred; the rope to which the car is attached weighs seven hundred and fifty-nine pounds, and, although not worn out in two years, is always changed at the end of that time.—*Kate Kenwood.*

"*HAD BEST SPEND.*"

"A STUDENT" very properly "asks, as a matter of information, how we parse *had* best *spend*, on page 44 of our January number, assuming that we defend the use of that form." His assumption, we may as well say, is not incorrect. In writing the sentence referred to, we stopped our pen for some seven seconds, while we passed in review all that the grammarians and grammaticasters have said against this particular idiotism. We might easily have obviated the suspicion of ignorance in regard to the exception so frequently taken to this phrase, by writing: "We do not think it best that boys should spend [for boys to spend] much time on the dry bones of prosody." But we preferred to retain the obnoxious combination, maugre the criticisms of the purists.

For our answer to "A Student's" query, we quote from the first grammar we open—Goold Brown's Grammar of English Grammars, which, being the biggest of its kind, will be recognized at once as the last appeal and end of controversy—the following dictum;—"With *better*, *rather*, *best*, *as lief*, *had* seems sometimes to be used before *the infinitive* to form the potential imperfect or pluperfect" [p. 365]. See, besides, Worcester's Quarto Dictionary, under *have*,

where the same Brown is cited as authority for these "idiomatic expressions." See, too, Webster's Dictionary, under *rather*:—"forms too well supported to be stigmatized as incorrect"; Bullions [Grammar, 358], who does not venture to condemn the phrase; Fowler [Grammar, 552, 5], who simply says, "*would rather* is preferable;" and Webster [Grammar, p. 175], who thinks "*had rather* is probably a mistake."

Shakespeare uses *had as lief* some twenty times. The following are also from Shakespeare: "He *had better starve*," "she *were better love* a dream," "I *were better to be* aten," "*dares better be* damned." The received English version of the Bible gives *had rather be* (Ps. 84; 10), and *had rather speak* (1 Cor. 14; 19). Junius wrote: "I *had as lief be* a Scotchman." Bacon has the sentence: "You *were better pour* off the first infusion," which Goold Brown would change to *had better pour*. Webster, lexicographer and grammarian, has this in his Essays: "You *had much better say* nothing on the subject." Kames, the critic, wrote: "We *had best leave* nature to her own operations." Harris, the accomplished grammarian: "What method *had he best take*." *The Nation*, a better model of style than some recent works upon vulgar errors in the use of the English tongue, gives us two instances of the reputed solecism in the number for 26th January:—"had needs be great," on p. 61, and "had not better be left," on p. 63. In the following issue, p. 77, we find, "had better have spared."

We have given the citations above, in which the combinations *were better* and *dares better* occur, because, to our mind, they suggest the true solution of the syntactical difficulty. In order still further to clear up the matter, we quote from two writers older than any yet cited. Gower has this:—"This knight *hath leauer for to die* than breke his trouth." Joye writes: "God saith, I wilnot ye death of a sinner, but *had liefer hem to be conuerted* and lyve." Here the customary sign of the infinitive after *have* leaves no room for doubt. A proper consideration of the phrases cited in this paragraph will cause the historical grammarian to hesitate before accepting the common dictum that *had* is always a corruption of *would*.

We remind ourselves, however, that the professed gram-

marian has little respect for usage, when it fails to conform to his rules. He holds the Horatian adage about

usus,
Quem penes arbitrium est et jus et norma loquendi,

in but qualified regard. He chiefly desires to know, in reference to a word or phrase, how to "parse" it,—under which of his canons to rank it. He has an unconquerable averson to anomalies and idiotisms. He sets high store by precision and logical clearness. So do we; the difference between us lies in the fact that he is more intent on the *form* of the expression, we on the *thought* to be expressed. He would be rid of condensed, elliptical, anomalous constructions—is annoyed by grammatical puzzles; we are not greatly troubled by them, if only the meaning shine clearly through.

Perhaps we can best illustrate the point we seek to make, by citing an example from some other language than English. Is *C'est moi* bad French, because *je* is the regular nominative of the first personal pronoun? Or who would venture to change the customary, though, as Madvig says, "in a grammatical point of view, *striking*" combination, *ante diem tertium Nonas*, or *ex ante diem*, for *die tertio ante*, etc., simply because the latter finds explanation in the rules of syntax?

The grammarian is in some danger of forgetting the proper province of his favorite science. His business is to discover and expound the laws of language, not to ordain and enforce laws of his own devising. It is no wonder if the subtilty and luxuriance of human speech should sometimes defy exact and scientific analysis. As thought transcends speech, so speech transcends all possible syntax. The prevailing analogies of a tongue are not to be pressed, to the extinction of those racy, forcible, often poetical peculiarities which we style idiotisms. They are older than all grammars, and constitute so vital a part of the spoken dialect, that the schoolmaster will strive in vain to banish them. And could he succeed, he would only put tameness and monotony in place of the pithy, picturesque irregularities of the vernacular. We enjoy good English as well as others, but we have little sympathy or patience with the petty,

piddling flaw-picking of some of the purists. Give us clearness and strength, even at the expense of élegance, if need be.

We are not unaware that these remarks may suggest questions somewhat difficult to answer. We grant there are phrases in popular use, and not entirely without sanction of reputable authority, which yet we should decline to repeat. Not even R. Grant White's precept, so learnedly backed up, could induce us to say: "The dog *lays* down," though reinforced by the consenting practice of the millions who never read his fine-drawn disquisition. In sailor's parlance, a ship never *lies* at the wharf,—it always *lays;* and we could easily cite from poets, editors, judges, and doctors of divinity to countenance the men of the sea in this use of the word. Now the query will arise, Shall the well-nigh universal use of *lay* as the preterite of *lie* be allowed to prevail over the canon of the grammarian? If "usus" is the great arbiter, may we not say *these sort*, *those kind*, *you was* [Webster justifies this in his grammar], *setting* hens [as even Mrs. Stowe does], *being built*, *to* respectfully but vehemently *disclaim* [Overland Monthly, Jan., 1871], etc., etc.?

For ourselves, we are free to say, that we know of no rule in regard to words that will relieve one from the exercise of his own linguistic sense and taste. Cæsar's maxim: insolens verbum tanquam scopulum evitare,—is the most comprehensive, and the most useful, direction that occurs to us. Neither use alone, nor grammar-rules alone, and least of all etymology alone, will serve as a sufficient guide. For instance, almost all ladies, when inquired of as to their health, reply: "I am *nicely*, *poorly*, *miserably*," as the case may be. The second of these wretched vocables we have heard used by a university professor of English literature, and find it honored with a place in "Webster," though marked "*colloq.*" *Firstly* is condemned on all hands, but used by Huxley, who evidently knows a thing or two about English as well as physical science. The phrase *being built* has been written at by all the grammarians and verbal critics, big and little, and yet it holds its ground wonderfully well,—perhaps because we can hardly do without it. It would certainly be a little ambiguous to say: The boy *is whipping—is teaching*. Change the form of the expression in

the following sentence from an account of Lincoln's first inauguration, and the second Washington would seem to be charged with very unseasonable profanity: "Scott had his guns pointed on the capitol, while Lincoln was *being sworn.*" It is said to be a note of defective education for a man to write *over my signature*, instead of the old-time formula, *under my signature;* as if it were a sin to make one's speech conform to present fact rather than ancient precedent. Here is another innocent phrase, that has been hunted up and down in the newspapers, and remorselessly pursued, even by George P. Marsh: *in our midst.* The poor little phraseling did not get into King James's Bible, or Milton's poetry, or Shakespeare's plays, and so all clerkly men are interdicted from employing it, on pain of being suspected of ignorance and vulgarity. *In our midst* must mean *in our bowels*, they say, and then they smile aloud at their own cheap wit, as if it were conclusive criticism. We confess that, for the life of us, we cannot see the point of the objections to this brief, convenient, expressive form of speech. It would be easy to cite many good writers who have employed it. Wherein it is more illogical than *in our vicinity*, or *in our neighborhood*, we would like to have Mr. Marsh tell us, if he can. It is "pretty much of a muchness" with the exceptions taken not long since by something less than a thousand newspapers, religious and other, to the common combination, "*female* prayer-meeting." Some wise body discovered that a *meeting* was without sex, and at once cried out against the impropriety; chiefly, we suppose, because [s]he did not like the word *female*, and wished to be rid of it. The logic was unimpeachable, but it happens that language does not always bend to logic. "Sleeping-coaches" do not sleep; "eating-saloons" have neither teeth nor stomach; "cotton mills" are often built of stone; and "orphan asylums" were never bereaved. Very improper phrases, no doubt, all of them; but perfectly intelligible, notwithstanding their illogical conciseness. In like manner, as we sometimes had occasion to speak of assemblages that were neither women's meetings nor ladies' meetings nor girls' meetings, we kept on in the use of the hated phrase. One result of the discussion unfortunately remains: the good noun *lady* has been obliged, not seldom, to leave its

high and clean uses, and do duty for *female* (we save the word *woman* for noble service), besides being degraded to frequent employment as an adjective; as in the hateful [pardon, ladies! we but borrow the word] phrases, *lady teacher*, *lady editor*, *lady president*, etc.

But to go back;—the peculiar use of *had* in *had better spend* seems to us no more in need of explanation than the same word when signifying *must;* as, "you will *have* to defend yourself;" or than in the phraseological combinations, *have at you*, *have with you*, etc. Like idiomatic uses of *make*, *do*, and *get* will suggest themselves, or may be looked up in a good dictionary or grammar. *Help*, in the sense of *refrain*, is worth naming in the same connection. The so-called auxiliary use of *be* before certain neuter verbs; as, *was gone*, *is come*, is a fearful stumbling-block to certain logical, or analogical grammarians. And yet we would really like to hear them explain how it comes about that it is correct in French and German, but unpardonable in English. It is really wonderful, how sacred are the very blunders of Greek and Roman writers, how patiently their disregard of grammatical logic, and their deviations from analogy are explained and elucidated, while English authors of the very highest rank are picked at and "corrected," until the twenty rigid canons of the critic's grammar will suffice to construe and "parse" each separate word.

We have made these remarks by way of suggestion rather than in order to give currency to our own views, and close by calling attention to an idiomatic phrase, which we certainly would not venture to pronounce incorrect, yet which seems to us an excellent nut for the full-grown grammarian to try his teeth on. "He may perish *for all me*." We would like to see a solution that will not seem far-fetched when applied to *for all that*.

EVERY man has two educations, that which is given to him, and that which he gives to himself. The latter is the more valuable. All that is most worthy in a man he must work out and conquer for himself. What we are merely *taught*, seldom nourishes the mind like that which we teach ourselves.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

EIGHTH PART.

"Saw Midsummer Night's Dream, which I had never seen before, nor shall ever again, for it is the most insipid, ridiculous play that ever I saw in my life." SAMUEL PEPYS'S DIARY, Sept. 29, 1662.

THE FRENCH INFLUENCE, 1660–1700.

DURING the eleven years of the Protectorate, and indeed since the battle of Narely in 1645, the eldest son of Charles I. had been a wanderer on the continent of Europe. A portion of the time was spent in the court of Louis XIV., where, in the midst of congenial dissipation, the prince acquired habits that he never lost. When Oliver Cromwell died, no one was found competent to take his place, and the people became dissatisfied and uneasy.

The diary of Samuel Pepys is invaluable as a record of the times. At the beginning of the year 1660, we learn from him that there was "a strange difference in men's talk," and as we follow his garrulous record, we find that those who liked royalty better than republican simplicity gradually grew bolder in their talk. Events were drifting towards a restoration of the line of Stuarts which had been broken when Charles I. was beheaded in 1649.

Pepys was a shrewd courtier, an efficient man of affairs, was not deficient in scientific and literary attainments, and recorded in his diary with great minuteness what he saw in public and in private life. These facts, added to the fact that he held an important civil office under Charles II. and James II. make his diary one of the most interesting literary relics of the age. As he wrote in cipher, Pepys was not afraid to set down matters for which we thank him now, but which, had they been read in his own day, would have cost him his office, very likely his head.

Let us quote a few of his naïve records touching the matter of dress:

"Jan. 22, 1660. This day I began to put on buckles to my shoes."

"Feb. 2. This day I put on my white suit, with silver lace coat."

"April 2 . This morning the tailor spent in my cabin putting a great many ribbons to my suit."

"May 15. In the afternoon my lord [Montague] called on me on purpose to show me his fine clothes, which are now come hither, and indeed are as rich as gold and silver can make them."

"May 23. Up, and made myself as fine as I could with the linen stockings, etc., that I bought the other day at Hague."

"July 1. Lord's Day. This morning come home my fine camlet cloak, with gold buttons, and a silk suit, which cost me much money, and I pray God make me able to pay for it."

And so he runs on day after day, mixing his stories of gold buttons and silk suits, and many ribbons, with details of royal debaucheries, the dissipation of the nobles, and the rioting and drunkenness of the commons.

Early in the spring of 1660 an expedition was sent to Holland to bring young Charles to his native land. Pepys accompanied the fleet. While he was yet at the Hague the prince was proclaimed king in London. One fine day, towards the end of May, he landed on English soil beneath the white cliffs of Dover. The shore was crowded with his new subjects—horsemen and footmen—noblemen and yeomen united to welcome back the sovereign who, they supposed, would give them order for confusion. The mayor came too, in great pomp, and presented him a Bible. His hypocritical Majesty kissed the book, and unblushingly proclaimed that he loved it above all things else in the world! He was soon driven off to Canterbury amid shouts and expressions of loyal joy which, Pepys says, were "past imagination."

There was now a change in literature no less marked than in life. Gayety, frivolity, license were the order of the day in court, and the commons followed, like loyal subjects, the royal example. The ribbons that Pepys put on were adopted by all who would stand well at court. Men wore brilliant satin doublets with slashed sleeves, rich point-lace collars, and graceful plumes were on their hats! The king had no shame, no more had the people, though Pepys does record in cipher that he had a little. The theatres which the Puritans had closed were reopened, and the female characters were personated by women. Milton's books were burned by the common hangman, and John Bunyan was shut up to dream in Bedford jail.

One of the first books published under the new order was a burlesque poem of eleven thousand lines entitled *Hudibras*,

in which the author, Samuel Butler, held up to ridicule the peculiar habits, manners, customs and doctrines of the Puritans. It is one of the greatest efforts of its peculiar style of writing, and its broad jokes mark it as the product of the age of the restoration.

The spirit of the age penetrated every sphere of life, and even Dr. South, the great divine, could not restrain himself when tempted to point his arrows of sarcasm at the Puritans.

One of the greatest writers of the time was John Dryden, a professional author of wonderful fertility, whose works are strongly marked by the influence of the new atmosphere of court. He was a critic of catholicity and courage, a dramatist of literary merit, but bad morals, a prose writer of vigor, a poet of cold conventionalities, and mechanical perfection, but not of the heart-power which is the boast of so many other English authors.

The "Comic Dramatists of the Restoration" is the title of one of Macaulay's essays, and it ought to be read by every student of this time. In it we see Etheridge, Vanburgh, Congreve and Wycherley held up to the shame they merit, for their immoral plays.

The fashionable dinner hour in these days in London, was three o'clock, or at latest four. After this meal, at about six, the ladies made visits to one another, and the gentlemen began at about the same hour to assemble at their favorite coffee houses. Coffee seems to have been first brought to England about 1641. Its virtues were highly lauded by advertisement, and by the date of which we now treat it was a very popular beverage. It appears that the company at each coffee-house was somewhat select, and of a particular character. The politicians assembled at St. James's, the learned frequented the Grecian, the gay and young went to White's, and the wits and poets congregated at Wills', which came to be called the Wits' Coffee House. These places exerted a great literary influence for many years, for they were the centres of information, wit and criticism. John Dryden presided at Wills', and a succession of men whose names stand high in literary annals, were found breathing its fragrant atmosphere, and drinking its refreshing beverage. Of these were Wycherley, Pope, Addison, Gay, and others.

From the coffee-house grew, at a later period, the club, which is now a prominent feature in English city life, but generally deficient in literary character.

The essays of the *Tattler*, *Spectator*, and *Rambler* were also fruits of the clubs. The two names of the period we are considering which these essays suggest to our minds are those of Joseph Addison, and Sir Richard Steele. These two men were of very different traits of character, but labored together with singular unity of purpose. Some of the characters they portrayed were invented by one, and perfected by the other, and thus the liveliness and dramatic power of Steele were improved in action by the delicate and refined taste of Addison. It is to Addison, undoubtedly, that we must attribute the great social reform inaugurated by the papers of the *Spectator*. His Christian eloquence enabled him, as Macaulay says, to teach "the nation that the faith and morality of Hale and Tillotson might be found in company with wit more sparkling than the wit of Congreve, and with humor richer than the humor of Vanburgh. So effectually indeed did he retort on vice the mockery that had recently been directed against virtue, that since his time the open violation of decency has always been considered among us as the sure mark of a fool." Thus the generation that gave our literature the debasing plays of the comic dramatists of the restoration, gave it also the purifying essays of the classic Addison.

Another influence was also at work. Jeremy Collier, a graduate of Oxford, came out against the shameless authors of the day in *A Short View of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage*. This contained some arguments not of the most powerful sort, but it brought the matter into notice, the eyes of the people were opened, and a discussion continuing ten years led to a purer taste and a purer stage.

The French influence during the period before us was manifest both in the morals and in the manner of the literature. If the influences above-mentioned had improved the morals of English writing, we shall see that, for the next generation at least, the mark of its manner, artificial and heartless, was not worn away. The extract at the head of this paper shows into what repute Shakespeare had fallen at the

time of the restoration. It was long before his writings regained their proper place in the opinion of his countrymen. Milton was so much more recent, and his works were looked upon with so much prejudice, that they are not even mentioned in Mr. Pepys's extensive diary.

ARTHUR GILMAN.

AVERSENESS TO LEARNING TRADES.

THERE is the soundest common sense in the following paragraph from the *Manufacturer and Builder:* Why is it that there is such a repugnance on the part of parents to putting their sons to a trade? A skilled mechanic is an independent man. He has literally his fortune in his own hands. Yet foolish parents—ambitious that their sons should "rise in the world," as they say—are more willing that they should study for a profession with chances even of a moderate success heavily against them, or run the risk of spending their manhood in the ignoble task of retailing dry goods, or of toiling laboriously at the accountant's desk, than learn a trade which would bring them manly strength, health, and independence. In point of fact, the method they choose is the least likely to achieve the advancement aimed at; for the supply of "errand boys," dry-goods clerks, is notoriously overstocked; while the demand for really skilled mechanics of every description, is as notoriously beyond the supply. The crying need of the country to-day is for skilled labor; and that father who neglects to provide his son with a useful trade, does him a grievous wrong, and runs the risk of helping by so much, to increase the stock of idle and dependent, if not vicious, members of society. It is stated in the report of the Prison Association, that of 14,596 prisoners confined in the penitentiaries of thirty States in 1867, seventy-seven per cent. or over 10,000 of the number, had never learned a trade. The fact conveys a lesson of profound interest to those who have in charge the training of boys, and girls too, for the active duties of life.

FICTION AS AN EDUCATOR.

DRYDEN gives it as his opinion that "it is the genius of our countrymen to improve upon an invention rather than to invent themselves;" and though he is speaking of the obligations of our earlier English poets to Italian sources, rather than of the mission of Oriental fancy to help Western imagination to the use of its wings, yet his argument takes that direction, and shows the necessity of a first impulse from without in opposition to the irrepressible theory lately put forth. No doubt a work of far less decided force of invention falling on a kindred fancy effects the same purpose. We have always regarded the "Autobiography of David Copperfield" as in some points imaging Charles Dickens's own early experiences. When his hero amuses Steerforth at school with repetitions of his early novel-readings, we doubt not they were the tales that had impressed the author's own childhood, and given the bent to his genius. When little Copperfield pays his first visit to Mr. Micawber in the Marshalsea, and recalls on his way Roderick Random's consignment to that dreary prison, and there encountering a debtor whose only covering was a blanket, it was probably the recollection of a similar vivid startling impression on his own feelings which made the humors of prison-life at all times a congenial subject for his pen.

Curiously illustrating this view is Cobbett's history of what he calls the birth of his intellect. Cobbett's was certainly an irrepressible character; but the intellect which gave such weight and impetus to it needed an awakening which, except for an accident, might not have happened in childhood—the age essential for its full development. And unless Swift had chosen to express himself through the medium of fiction (so to call it), his mind, however congenial with Cobbett's, would never have come in contact with it at the impressible period, and probably never at all. It is one of the main gifts of influence to know the right means to an end, and Swift knew invention to be his means, saying, "In my disposure of employments of the brain, I have thought fit to make invention the master, and to give method and reason the office of its lackeys."

"At eleven years of age" (Cobbett writes), "my employment was clipping of box-edgings and weeding beds of flowers in the garden of the Bishop of Winchester, at the Castle of Farnham, my native town. I had always been fond of beautiful gardens, and a gardener, who had just come from the King's gardens at Kew, gave me such a description of them as made me instantly resolve to work in those gardens. The next morning, without saying a word to any one, off I set, with no other clothes except those upon my back, and with thirteen halfpence in my pocket. I found I must go to Richmond, and I accordingly went on from place to place, inquiring my way thither. A long day (it was in June) brought me to Richmond in the afternoon. Two penny-worth of bread and cheese, and a penny-worth of small beer, which I had on the road, and one halfpenny that I had lost somehow or other, left threepence in my pocket. With this for my whole fortune, I was trudging through Richmond in my blue smock-frock, and my red gaiters tied under my knees, when, staring about me, my eye fell upon a little book in a bookseller's window, on the outside of which was written 'The Tale of a Tub, price threepence.' The title was so odd that my curiosity was excited. I had the threepence, but then I could not have any supper. In I went and got the little book, which I was so impatient to read that I got over into a field at the upper corner of Kew Gardens, where there stood a haystack. On the shady side of this I sat down to read. The book was so different from anything I had ever read before, it was something so new to my mind, that, though I could not understand some parts of it, it delighted me beyond description, and produced what I have always considered a sort of birth of intellect. I read on till it was dark without any thought of supper or bed. When I could see no longer I put my little book in my pocket and tumbled down by the side of the stack, where I slept till the birds in Kew Gardens awaked me in the morning, when off I started to Kew, reading my little book. . . . I carried it about with me wherever I went, and when I —at about twenty years old—lost it in a box that fell overboard in the Bay of Fundy, in North America, the loss gave me greater pain than I have since felt at losing thousands of pounds."

Who can tell how much Cobbett's admirable style, so remarkable in a self-educated man, turned upon an early acquaintance with such a model? The choice and collocation of words owe much to early preference, and the rhythm which first charms the ear.

The child's first visit to the theatre plays a telling part in the memory of genius. Our readers will recall Charles Lamb's vivid recollections of his first play, "Artaxerxes," seen at six years old, when the green curtain veiled heaven to his imagination—when, incapable of the anticipation, he

reposed his shut eyes in the maternal lap—when at length all feeling was absorbed in vision. "I knew nothing, understood nothing, discriminated nothing. I felt all, loved all, wondered all, was nourished I could not tell how." And Walter Scott, at four, shouting his protest, "But ain't they brothers?" as Orlando and Oliver fought upon the Bath stage. Goethe's childhood recollections are all of the theatre and living actors and puppets, his earliest and lasting inspiration. But the excitement of the scene commonly makes a child too conscious of the present, and of his own part in it, for the magic of new impressions to work undisturbed. A clever child is stimulated to immediate imitation of what it sees. The sight of the actors, the gaudy accessories, the artificial tones, lower the level. The noblest language, the most impressive scenes, don't work on the mind as they do pictured by the busy absorbed fancy. No child reading "Macbeth" or the "Midsummer Night's Dream" could conceive the idea of composing a play; but, taken to the theatre, play-writing proposes itself as an obvious amusement. "It is the easiest thing in the world," said Southey, at eight years old an *habitué*, to write a play." "Is it, my dear?" said the lady he addressed. "Yes," he answered; "for you know you have only to think what you would say if you were in the place of the characters, and to make them say it;" a notion very current with children, who expect the words to come with the situation, but unpromising for future success. We find always a period of gestation between the first prompting and great achievement.—*(To be continued.*

GOOD LANGUAGE.—Young people should acquire the habit of correct speaking and writing, and abandon as early as possible any use of slang words or phrases. The longer you put this off the more difficult the acquirement of correct language will be; and if the golden age of youth, the proper season for the acquisition of language, be passed in abuse, the unfortunate victim will most probably be doomed to talk slang for life. You have merely to use the language which you read, to form a taste in agreement with the speakers and poets in the country.

KEEP YOUR MOUTH SHUT.

A FEW years ago, George Catlin wrote a pamphlet, which was published in England, and is now being translated in most other European languages, on the importance of breathing through the nose, in order to preserve health. He has made observations on this subject, first among civilized nations, finding that individuals who habitually keep their mouths open are never very healthy or long lived. Afterward, he observed the same thing during a sojourn of many years among the Indians of North and South America; and he has come to the conclusion that there exists a definite law for breathing and sleeping, obedience to which must exercise the most beneficial influence on the well-being of the human race, and which can not be too strongly insisted upon. Mothers, and all others who have children to educate, should be persuaded of its great importance, that they may inculcate upon their children and pupils the golden lesson contained in these four words, *Keep your mouth shut.* Hitherto this advice has been considered only as a moral injunction, to restrain children from talking too much; but Catlin prescribes it literally, and insists that air should only pass in or out of the lungs by the nose, except in the act of speaking or singing. He is so enthusiastic concerning the great value of this simple hygienic recipe that he closes the book with the following remarks: "If I had a million of dollars to spend for a charitable purpose, surpassing all others in value, I would spend it to print four millions of my books, and distribute them among four million mothers, rich as well as poor. I would not obtain therefor any monument nor decoration of nobility; but I would—which is much better—have obtained the peculiarly joyful satisfaction that I had left posterity a lagacy of much higher value than money ever can have."

There is no doubt that the advice is good. The air, by being inhaled through the nose, is more perfectly freed from dust, and in winter reaches the lungs in a warmer condition than when inhaled by the mouth (which is of great importance to people with weak lungs). It keeps the lower forward portion of the brain cool, when inhaled by the nose;

while it dries the saliva, and thus interferes with digestion, when inhaled by the mouth; and those who sleep with their mouths shut will not have that dry, unpleasant taste when they awake in the morning, and are less subject to that nocturnal social nuisance—*snoring*.

However, in regard to the theory that life is shortened by the habit of breathing through the mouth, we are satisfied that it depends on another cause, namely, a defect in the primary organization of the individual. The channels of the nose are often not left wide enough to admit sufficient air for respiration; so that the individual is compelled to respire at least a portion of it through the mouth. It is a fact known by connoisseurs of horses, that when their nostrils are too narrow they cannot stand much fatigue, and are short winded, never live long, and soon break down. But, as the horse cannot breathe through his mouth at all, the defect in question is more dangerous to him than to man, and often fatal when he is over-worked.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE Countess did not permit the events of the night to interfere with her resolution to depart. She had slept longer than she intended. She received with feigned indifference the reports of the domestics as to Wülfing's presence on the premises during the night, his taking away his own things and some of the Count's property, and his attempt to set fire to the house. A bundle of brimstone threads had been discovered in the courtyard. Friction matches and one larger match, of cotton-yarn twisted, had been found at the same place. No other marks of the attempted crime had been traced as yet. Nothing was mentioned as to the cotton forced between the blinds. The Count, they said, was greatly excited. The purpose of the criminals to destroy his collections was evident. Early in the morning he had galloped away to the town of Dornweil, the seat of the court. He had given the alarm in all the neighboring villages, and had effected the arrest of one Wildman, a

day-laborer, and his whole family, the members of which were well acquainted in the castle. One of the daughters was engaged to be married to Wülfing. The criminal must have had accomplices, since the tracks of several persons had been discovered in the park. It was clear that there was a conspiracy to burn the castle.

Nothing could have happened more to Jadwiga's purpose than the departure of the Count. Dornweil was several leagues distant. The Count, a former member of the bench, would naturally take an active part in the transactions, and especially in the examination of the prisoners. His return was not to be expected before noon. Perhaps the united efforts of her attendants might forward the necessary preparations so as to enable her to depart before the probable return of her husband. Indeed, everything was ready immediately after lunch, and the Countess left the chateau in an elegant, heavily loaded traveling-coach, two of the servants being seated in a separate compartment in the rear. Unfortunately her road was the same that the Count had taken, and Dornweil, the seat of the court, was the very place where she was to exchange her own horses for post-horses. But she had provided for the event that the Count, on his return to the castle, might encounter her on the road. Her instructions to the coachman were, "under no circumstances, to stop the horses."

At the first gate, the toll-receiver stopped the carriage. Believing that the trip was in some way connected with Wülfing's attempted crime, he reported what he knew of the results of the chase for the culprits. "They will soon have them. The gens d'armes[1] are distributed at all points. They are on their track. Two of them are hiding in the forest. Who would have thought such things of Wülfing! And then these Wildmans, too! Who would have imagined that they were such wicked people! Not long ago they were taken past the house. It was the whole set. The old people were crying and swearing that they knew nothing about it. But Gussie, Wülfing's sweetheart, you know, was very down-cast and solemn, and did not dare to look up. That tells the whole story.

1 The gens d'armes are a police-force with a strictly military organization.

They must be down in Dornweil by this time, where the squire will examine them."

The servants inquired whether he knew anything about "the other one." "One of Wildman's boys, they say; Gussie's brother, a wicked fellow! The Count thinks so, too. He has just passed here down the forest road."

The toll-house was on a crossing, and the Countess knew now that she would not meet her husband, a possibility of which she had been not a little afraid. When the carriage was rolling on again, she could not cease thinking about the toll-receiver's remarks on "Gussie." She had always liked this person; for she bore a good character, was pretty, diligent, and had often made herself useful in the chateau. The Countess had often thought that "Gussie" was worthy of a better position in the world than her parents could afford her. If she was gloomy and downcast, the reason must have been the terrible charges against Wülfing. For that the girl should have any share in the attempted crime seemed altogether improbable. She soon became absorbed in these thoughts. Hennenhöft alone seemed to disturb her musings. But still—a new thought flashed through her mind, and she started as if bitten by a serpent! Might she not employ this very man for her present purposes?

About half an hour had thus passed; the horses were going at full speed. Suddenly they stopped. Roused from her dreams, she overheard the following loud and confused remarks of her servants: "There they are; there they bring them; they are coming from the forest—and in chains, they are guarded by peasants with clubs. For pity's sake, how slowly they are creeping along! But they know how to make them go! Now they are taking them between two gens d'armes on horseback. Is that the other one? Why, that is the fellow who applied for the place—last night at the Count's dinner. Good gracious, they have concocted all this together!"

The Countess, by means of her eye-glasses, which she held with a trembling hand, surveyed the scene that was enacting at a distance of about a thousand yards. The prisoners were transported in the direction of the highroad, which they must reach in a short time. The Countess, not desiring to meet the party, ordered the driver to go on

quickly. They soon arrived at Dornweil. Here she had a conversation with the mail-coach agent, in the presence of several guests of the hotel at which they had stopped. She openly and emphatically declared the prisoners to be—innocent. She repeated this to all who asked her, even to her own servants. Then she sought an interview with the prosecuting attorney, in order to give him the necessary information. The excitement created by these unexpected statements of the Countess was the greater, because they were in direct contradiction to those of the Count, who only a few hours ago had given the alarm to the whole town.

The Court-house in Dornweil is an ancient stone building in East-European style, a peculiar mixture of certain elements of Italian architecture, with the character of Slavic wood structures.

Our scene is in that portion of Eastern Germany which was in the track of the Slavic immigration. The town had a large market-square, called "the Ring," containing the principal buildings of the place, the Church, the Town-house, Court-house, and the several Guild-houses. The market was shaded by many remarkable and ancient specimens of the "Slavic" linden tree, that symbol of meekness and peace, which by virtue of its aromatic odor, is the special favorite of dreamy and imaginative nations. A pair of cockle-stairs, with spiral windings, led from the pavement to the entrance of the Court-house, with its curious roofs, minute domes and turrets. Both staircases ended in a covered gallery at the outside of the building.

The Countess was on the first steps, when a man was just descending from the gallery. She recognized him as lawyer Hellwig, the same whom she consulted at Buchenried. The lawyer bowed to her stiffly; but scarcely had he replaced his traveling cap, when it became apparent to her that she had been recognized by him. He had caught sight of the Countess, the coach on the opposite side of the market, the servants, the coachman. Having made a few steps downward, he suddenly stopped, raised his eyebrows with an expression of surprise, and after some deliberation retraced his steps upward to the interior of the Court-house. With at misgivings the Countess entered the court-room,

where she made herself and her purpose known to the district attorney. The latter, with great politeness, took up his papers. Jadwiga stated that accident had made her an eye-witness of last night's occurrence.

"Indeed! The Count said nothing of it——"

"I have not seen the Count since the event. I was engaged in preparations for a long journey, which I have just now commenced. My mind was entirely occupied by my private affairs. When I thought that it was the proper time to make the necessary explanations as to the events of last night, I found that my husband had already departed, that the poor Wildmans were under arrest, and that warrants were issued for the arrest of innocent persons——"

"Countess Wildenschwert, I am amazed——"

"I hoped to overtake the Count on the road. But I find that I have come too late to prevent the mischief. Hence I wish to put my statements on record."

"Very well," said the official; "will you pledge your word for the innocence of these people?" With these words he opened the file of papers already drawn up in the case.

Jadwiga was afraid that some mention might have been made of the combustible matter that Hennenhöft had placed between the blinds. She asked, therefore, whether she could not have her husband's deposition read to her? After the district attorney had complied with her wish, she smiled and said: "All these statements are mere conjectures, which I might have easily refuted, had I not been so much pre-occupied with my own affairs." After these preliminary remarks, she gave, at the request of the prosecuting attorney, the following version of the events with which our readers are already familiar:

"The preparations for my journey had occupied me till a very late hour of the night. I was going to open one of the windows, to let in some fresh air, when I heard the noise of our hounds in the court-yard, as if somebody were caressing them. This made me suppose that it was Wülfing. He had been absent the whole day, in consequence of some difficulty with my husband the night before. You know, such things *will* happen sometimes. Whose fault it was, I dare not decide."

The features of the officer showed undisguised surprise. The Countess made an attempt to smile.

"We women," she continued, "are always disposed to be somewhat severe on the faults of our husbands, when we perceive that other people have to suffer by them. The Count has a high temper. But it is quite probable that Wülfing may have behaved improperly. I shall not doubt it in the least. But, to do him justice, I must say that he was, on the whole, a good servant, faithful and attentive. He was three years with us—as long as I have been married to the Count." After this digression, she again took up her narrative. "Believing that somebody was with the dogs, I became alarmed and went to another room, where I could see what was going on. I cautiously opened a shutter and saw that there was another man beside Wülfing. He had a coat on like that of a huntsman, as nearly as I could distinguish by the feeble moonlight. I noticed that Wülfing handed over to this man several things which he had apparently taken from his room in the opposite house; for he was standing close by the window. I could distinctly see that he put aside some of the things, and it seemed to me that he was separating the things belonging to himself from those belonging to the Count; for he put many of them back into the room. It also seemed as if he had not light enough for this purpose; for I saw him strike several matches at brief intervals. In the meanwhile, the wind had arisen, and my open shutter was closed by it. For reasons, easily understood, I let a short time pass before I opened it again. When I had done it, I found that both men had left the premises. It seems clear that the brimstone threads found by our people in the court-yard, were employed for no other purpose than to give sufficient light to the men while they were separating Wülfing's property from that of the Count. Our servants were misled by these materials, to cast an utterly groundless suspicion on innocent men."

The prosecuting attorney did not seem to be quite satisfied with this narrative. "Countess Wildenschwert," said he, "the times have gone by when people used bundles of brimstone threads for making a light."

"Certainly," replied Jadwiga; "but Wülfing probably

had these threads in his room. I had spoken with him about keeping bees. We have many wild swarms in our forest, and brimstone must be used to 'sulphur them out.' I told him to procure some, and the brimstone threads, found by the servants, are unquestionably those which he procured at my request."

We do not know how long the Countess would have indulged in these creations of her imaginative power—vulgarly called lies—had it not suddenly occurred to her that Wülfing, in his impending examination, might tell a very different story. She had also remarked, to her great uneasiness, that lawyer Hellwig was softly gliding past the windows on the outside gallery. A sardonic smile on his face revealed to her the fact that she was recognized by him, and there was no telling what might be the consequences, if he were indiscreet enough to initiate the district attorney into the secrets of her interview with him.

There was a brief pause. The officer of the law seemed to deliberate. But he soon concluded that the deposition of the Countess necessarily must end the whole matter. While he was committing her statements to paper, lawyer Hellwig had entered the court-room, and after having taken a seat, turned over some papers, with apparent indifference to the proceedings. When the district attorney had read to the Countess his record of her statements, he seemed to intimate by an anxious look about the room, that he required somebody to identify the person of the Countess, to whom he was a perfect stranger. Lawyer Hellwig looked up, arose, and politely bowing towards the Countess, intimated by this act that he was personally acquainted with her. This seemed to give full satisfaction to the officer. But Jadwiga almost fainted when she saw that a part of her secrets were at the mercy of a stranger. Still she recovered strength enough to place a sum of money in the hands of the district attorney, with a request to hand it to the prisoners, as a partial compensation for the wrongs they had innocently suffered. She requested him, as a special favor, to release, as soon as possible, the members of the Wildman family from prison. She also left her address in the city, and expressed the desire that those that had been under

arrest might be encouraged to apply to her for further assistance.

A few minutes later the Countess was on the road to the capital.[1]

CHAPTER IX.

SEVENTEEN years had passed since the scene in the court-house of Dornweil. It was one of those rare years in which Nature permits Spring to succeed quickly upon grim Winter. The month of May was indeed the bridal kiss which, as our ancient poet Logau[2] says, is impressed by Heaven upon the lips of Earth as a future mother.

Blue and bright was the sky over a lovely region of Central Germany. Valleys and mountains, meadows and forests, villages and detached farm-houses lay scattered in picturesque variety. A boy of about twelve years might be seen zealously searching for something on a hill-side near the edge of a forest. When looking out into the distance the dazzling rays of the morning sun made him protect his eyes with both his hands.

Had the barefooted urchin been Uhland's shepherd boy,[3] he might have well lent words to a feeling akin to that of a king; for he, too, could say that he wielded a scepter over a beautiful world lying at his feet. Yonder to the left, extended a majestic forest, closing the distant view of more than one-half of this panorama. Opposite to the right, abundance and comfort met the eye in the shape of mills, villages, agricultural establishments, and manorial buildings. Immediately below was a stately little village, commanded by a lofty church-steeple, and an ancient chateau, built in a rather tasteless, antiquated style, to which a private road with a double row of poplars gave access.

1 For those not acquainted with the German law, it will not be superfluous to remark, that no oath is taken from witnesses before the formal indictment. In criminal cases, only the presiding judge is entitled to take the oaths of witnesses in the presence of the jury. Thus it happened that Countess Jadwiga did not make her statements under oath, which, although they were untrue, did not involve a perjury.—*Translator's Note.*

2 Frederich von Logau was born in 1604. He was a contemporary of Opitz, and belonged to the Silician poetical school. Logau is one of the greatest of German epigrammatists. His antiquated language, bearing the marks of a dark period in German literature, has prevented many from duly appreciating the great beauty of his thoughts.—*Remark of the Translator.*

3 The author refers to Uhland's beautiful poem, "Ich bin vom Berg der Hirtenknab."—*Translator.*

Say what you will against poplar trees! they are Nature disguised in a footman's livery. They are to nature what porters are to the mansions of the rich, or the armorial ensigns to the arched gateway. There is no earthly use either in a seignorial porter, a coat-of-arms or a double row of poplar trees, all of which rather belong in the chapter of nuisances. Still they are a significant embodiment of Pride. Poplars are the guards of honor to the traditions of wealth.

The little spy on the forest edge had about him very little of the romantic shepherd boy. No happiness, no cheerfulness spoke in his eyes, not even the pride of swaying a flock of fifty sheep by means of a barking officer. He fell even below the average of such specimens of his class as are apt to dispel all illusion created by some rural scenery in a collection of pictures. His clothes were rags, his feet without shoes; his tattered shirt was soiled, his flaxen hair matted; his eyes, deep in their sockets, were at once shy and defiant. When he did not look about him, he worked with a knife at willow-twigs, to cut them into whistles. Some he had already made, and practised whistling on them from time to time.

"Are you loafing about again, Bartel? Why do you not go to school as all the other children do? You are a disgrace to the place. While the other boys are going to school, you make faces behind your old, worthy schoolmaster. Take care, you scoundrel! If our minister does not soon send the constable to your house to take you up to school by the collar, I shall get out a warrant against you from the chief of police, and have you locked up!"

The boy thus addressed was frightened at first, but the impression did not last, although the harangue came from the seigniorial forester, the man whom of all others he dreaded most. The forester had taken the boy by surprise. The man was smoking a meerschaum, and wore a gray, short uniform with green collar and shoulder straps, the badge of his office. His light straw hat had a large front to protect his eyes from the sun.

"My father does not want me to go to school," was the pert reply of the boy, who in his first fright had retired towards the forest, but was now coming back to his willow-twigs.

"They will give it to your father for his 'not wanting!' If the overseer were not too good hearted, he would make you stand in the stocks in front of the school-house with donkey's ears on your head—*so* long! What are you about here, you rascal, I want to know. This is not the first time I have found you here. What business have you just at this spot?"

"I am cutting whistles of willows."

"Willows do not grow here."

"I brought them along with me."

"Why just here? Wait a little, my boy, there comes the village overseer (*schulze*);[1] he will have something to say to you — —"

The forester turned towards a corpulent, broad-shouldered farmer, who was coming up the hill, wiping the sweat from his face with a linen handkerchief with blue squares. He held a big, broad-brimmed hat in his other hand, and was panting from his violent exertions in ascending the hill. The boy had made use of this opportunity for making good his escape.

"*Schulze*, will you not do something with that brat of Bartel's? The rascal never goes to school, either in summer or in winter — —"

"That imp of a — —" replied Schulze Stutzbart, the wealthiest villager in Steinthal; "Yes, he will now be seen to. The minister has reported him to the chief of police. When I speak about the boy with old Bartel, his father, he says that he can teach him just as much as they do in school; and when I write to him, he pays no attention to my orders. The other day I met him at the raising of the new house in Stettingen. He stood on the top of the roof, and was making a swearing and swaggering speech, with a rum-bottle in his hand, and so drunk that all thought he would come down head foremost, and break his neck. Bartel, said I, you are a hardened sinner, you will go on blaspheming and swearing, and tippling, till you will be on your back, and Satan will have his own. 'Well,' said he, 'then the old woman will make a good bargain with

1 The office of overseer in German villages corresponds to that of mayor in the towns and cities. Such an overseer is called *schulze*. He is appointed by the State authorities, and is the executive officer of the government in all matters pertaining to the rural police. He is always taken from the number of the peasant freeholders. The *schulze* receives only a nominal salary from the community, but his importance among the villagers is great.

me for once.' Now I had to laugh in spite of myself. For his wife, you know, goes about the country, gathering old bones for the factory in Olberschwende."

"So they say," drily remarked the forester, while proceeding on his way, at the side of his friend, the "schulze." The voice of the mischievous boy was heard screaming and taunting after them. — —

The times have gone by in which our rural population could not appreciate the advantages of education. The daily life of our peasantry had formerly three centres—the church, the council-house, and—the village tavern. To these is now added a fourth—the SCHOOL. The school-house and the schoolmaster's dwelling have now become the peasant's pride. The new school-house of the little community strikes from afar the eyes of every passer-by. It is solidly built, of brick or stone. Numerous, large and air-affording are its windows. The melodious singing of the children, or their voices answering in a chorus may be heard at any time during school hours.

The regulations as to attendance and excuses for avoiding school are strict and rigorously enforced. The planting season and harvest time are the natural vacations of the village school. It is now not only during the winter months that the children are sent to school; even in summer the law consecrates the mornings exclusively to the school. In the later hours the child may carry the meal to his father, and help him in his field-work; or the children may employ this time in picking berries or gathering the cones of firs in the forest. In that portion of the country to which we have now conducted our readers, the burning of charcoal in the extensive forests gave to children a remunerative opportunity to assist their parents. The whole forest and all the track of land which could be seen from the hill on which the first scene of this chapter was enacted, formed part of the large possessions of Baron Otto de Fernau, or rather his wife, Jadwiga, the former Countess of Wildenschwert. Manufacturing industry is still far from this neighborhood, but it is approaching. The first outpost, at the same time a blessing and a breeder of pestilence, is the chemical works in Olberschwende. There they manufacture artificial fertilizers, sal amoniac, and boneblack.

Our government is rigorously enforcing now the laws on compulsory education. Not exactly for education's own sake! Alas, no! Government cannot speedily enough transform men into figures that count, into recruits, "food for powder." Hence, it begins early with its system of control, sifting the different generations as the miller does his grist. What "numbers" have we at our disposition? is the paramount question. Thus they always count and calculate beforehand. The schoolmaster reaps the benefit of this statistical solicitude. Now he need not any longer play the Jack of fathers and mothers, and see his freedom of action everywhere circumscribed by their narrow views! True, his compensation is still inadequate. The gardeners of the mind are still too dependent on the will of the communities and patrons who may measure out with a liberal or a stingy hand that part of the teacher's dues which is payable in kind. But so much, at least, has been achieved by the policy of our government—which knows national strength, patriotism, and devotion to be the fruit of that popular education which forces the individual into their inexorable statistical machinery, suffering not even a single one to drop out of it—so much has been accomplished by a successful application of these screws, that the time has passed forever when not only the attendance at school but the whole educational machine was dependent on the despotic will of the family and on the narrow-minded legislation of corporations and other centres of stupidity. The law prescribes what *must* be taught, what *must* be learned. It is true the school is not "emancipated," but under the guardianship of the State. But it will never be disfranchised of domestic follies and vicissitudes; of the influence of mothers who nowhere more than in the rural districts spoil their children; of vulgar fathers, prouder than the Counts of the Empire because they are feeding more cattle in their stables than their neighbors, and who will break in the schoolrooms with clenched fists, and menace the teacher with a thrashing for every blow on the backs of their crown princes! But the appeal of the school to those powers that defend its legal rights, is vastly easier now and more effective than formerly. The teacher represents a PRINCIPLE. If he is religious or even shrewd,

he will lean on the power of the Church. At all events, the next chief of police will afford him ample protection in maintaining discipline.[1]

Bartel, the bricklayer in Steinthal, dared to drop out of that machinery. With his breed of children, the proletarian defied the representative of the law in the person of the schoolmaster, John Jacob Nesselborn, the venerable, grey-haired father of our old friend Lienhard Nesselborn, the disciple of Pestalozzi.

WREDE'S EXPLORATIONS IN ARABIA.

FEW regions of the earth offer so many charms to the imagination as "Arabia Felix," both from the profusion and picturesqueness of the antique traditions respecting it and from the mystery in which it is for the most part involved even to our day. The interesting narrative recently communicated to the British Association by Mr. Munsinger (says the SATURDAY REVIEW) threw considerable light on the character of the country and the people, and at the same time served to confirm the statements of an earlier traveler, whose long suppressed work saw the light at about the same period. But for the perverse fate which has so long retarded the publication of Adolph Wrede's journey, performed in 1843, our knowledge of this part of Arabia might twenty years since have been as ample as it is at present. Wrede's destiny was singularly infelicitous. The successful execution of one of the most adventurous enterprises ever undertaken, rich in geographical acquisitions of the highest moment, brought him no other reward than the general incredulity

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1 We do not fully agree with the celebrated scholar and novelist in all these particulars. The reader must not forget that Gutzkow, in the beginning of his career, belonged to the most outspoken opponents of the government, and was in turn relentlessly pursued by the latter. This hostility to all that is governmental is often visible in spite of himself, and not rarely impairs his impartiality. Perhaps the greatest triumph for the educational system adopted by the Prussian government, is the result of the present war against France. Without its relentless educational system the stupendous display of national vigor would have been an impossibility. It is well worth the trouble to inquire into the MOTIVES of the Prussian government in introducing and carrying out its system of compulsory education. We certainly may *condemn* these motives, and yet indorse the means applied. But, be this as it may, nothing is more certain than that the men who inaugurated the Prussian educational system were of unquestionable purity, and of the most elevated and liberal views.—*Translator.*

of his countrymen. The case resembled Bruce's, with the serious difference for Wrede that the unjust obloquy which weighed so heavily upon the Englishman befell him after the publication of his travels; while in the case of the German it so operated as to prevent publication altogether. The accidental loss of maps and illustrations frustrated a promising attempt to procure the translation of the manuscript into English, and Wrede in despair emigrated to Texas, where all trace of him has been lost.

Wrede derived great facilities from his disguise as an Egyptian pilgrim. Landing at Borum, a small port about three days' sail to the East of Aden, he pursued a North-westerly direction into the interior. The furthest point attained was the village of Shana, on the edge of the great interior desert, near which is the remarkable quicksand by which, according to tradition, an invading army was entirely swallowed up. Wrede's description of this quicksand was one main cause of the scepticism with which his narrative was greeted on his return; its existence, however, so far at least as the testimony of the natives is concerned, is amply confirmed by the recent explorers. It is, according to him, of a grayish white, entirely different from the adjacent sand of the desert. From this point he pursued his journey toward the sea, his final departure being accelerated by his arrest and expulsion on suspicion of being a spy. His assumed character as an Egyptian created disgust in connection with the suspected designs of Mohammed Ali, and the English occupation of Aden four years previously had excited the utmost jealousy of every stranger. Nothing, according to our traveler, could exceed the detestation with which the English were then regarded—a feeling chiefly owing to religious fanaticism.

His description of the country near the sea agrees in the main with Munsinger's, as a land of stony ridges, terraced with strips of cultivation wherever practicable, and shadowing little oases of fertility where streams creep or wells bubble at their base, but in the main a desert. Further inland an open park-like tract, tolerably well timbered, slopes away to the great interior desert. The profusion of aromatic plants justifies the traditionary repute of the region, and

the agricultural industry of the inhabitants is creditable to them, the general rudeness of their condition being taken into account. They are divided into a number of petty tribes, possessing nothing like the political organization of the civilized Arabs of Nedjed or Oman, but the essential features of their character seems the same.

Particularly interesting are the traces of an era of far higher prosperity under the Himyaritic kings, by whom the magnificent reservoirs at Aden were constructed, and whose glory still dimly survives in the traditions of King Shedad. Wrede found that comparatively modern buildings were frequently reared on gigantic substructions of far higher antiquity, as is the case at Palmyra and Baalbec. Many Himyaritic inscriptions also exist, the most important of which, from Obne, is here published with an interpretation by the editor, who conjectures the date to have been 280 A. D.

ANCIENT TIME PIECES.

BOWLS were used to measure time, from which water, drop by drop, was discharged through a small aperture. Such bowls were called water-clocks, (*clepsydrae.*) It was then observed how much water from such a bowl or cask, from sunrise till the shortest shadow, trickeled down into another bowl placed beneath; and this time being the half of the whole solar day, was divided into six hours. Consequently, they took a sixth of the water which had trickled down, poured it into the upper bowl, and, this discharged, one hour had expired. But afterward a more convenient arrangement was made. They observed how high the water at each hour rose in the lower bowl, marked these points, and counted them, thus finding out how many hours there were till sunrise. With the Chinese, water-clocks, or clepsydrae, are very old. They used a round vessel, filled with water, with a little hole in the bottom, which was placed upon another vessel. When the water in the upper vessel pressed down into the lower vessel, it subsided by degrees, announcing thereby the parts of time elapsed. The Baby-

Ionians are said to have used such instruments; from them the Greeks of Asia Minor got them, at the time of King Cyrus, about the year 550 before Christ. The Romans did not get the first water-clock before the year 160 before Christ. But, though the hours of the clepsydrae did not vary in length, they still counted them from the morning. When the clock with us strikes seven, the ancients counted one; when the clock with us strikes twelve, the ancients counted six, and so forth. This method of counting the hour was, according to the New Testament, also customary in Palestine at the time of Christ. The water-clocks had that advantage, that they could be used in the night; and the Romans used them to divide their night watches, which were relieved four times, both summer and winter. Conformably to these four night-watches, time was counted, not only in Rome, but wherever Roman garrisons were stationed; consequently, also in Palestine, after she had become a Roman province. The first night-watch was called *vespera*, (evening,) from sunset to 9 o'clock; the second, *media nox*, (midnight,) from 9 o'clock to 2 o'clock; the third, *gallicinium*, (cock-crowing,) from 2 to 3 o'clock; and the fourth, *mane*, (morning,) from 3 o'clock to day-break.—*Old and New.*

MARY'S LAMB WITH A NEW SAUCE.

"MARY'S LAMB" has at last fallen a victim to the prevailing irreverence of the times, and been sacrificed on the altar of nonsense. The simple story which has enlisted the sympathy and interest of so many generations of children, and has doubtless impressed its rather thin moral lesson upon their minds, has been perverted, and its hold upon their affections consequently endangered. It has gone the way of the thrilling and once popular story of Casabianca, the moral lesson of which is now distorted by the very homely implication that the boy would not go when his father called, "because he loved his peanuts so." But we must "pardon something to the spirit of liberty," and the spirit of fun. As Mary's Lamb is already in the market, perhaps it is not altogether an unpardonable sin to serve it up as food for

laughter, so the following contribution is added to the stock on hand:

Mary had a little lamb,
  And liked it very much;
It pleased her better far than birds,
  Or ducks and geese and such.

Whenever Mary came from school,
  Her mother quick she sought,
And gave her not a moment's peace,
  Until her lamb was brought.

And every where that Mary went
  The lamb was sure to go,
Because when asked if she'd have more,
  She never answered No.

What made dear Mary like the lamb,
  Does any one inquire?
Because she knew how good it was
  When roasted by the fire.

And when served up with good mint sauce,
  And fresh green peas you'll know
How it is yourself, and understand
  Why Mary liked it so.

How to Spell.—Often in writing a simple word is required, of the orthography of which the writer is not sure. The dictionary may be referred to, but it is not always convenient. An easy mode is to write the word on a piece of waste paper, in two or three ways of which you are in doubt. Nine times in ten, the mode which looks right is right. Spelling, particularly English spelling, is so completely a work of the eye, that the eye alone should be trusted. There is no reason why "receive" and "believe" should be spelled differently, yet sounded alike in their second syllables. Yet write them "recieve" and "beleive," and the eye shows you the mistake at once. The best way for young people, and indeed people of any age, to learn to spell is to practice writing. Cobbett taught his children grammar by requiring that they should copy their lessons two or three times. These lessons he himself gave them in the form of letters; and his French and English grammars are two of the most amusing books in the English language. Of course "learning to spell" came in incidentally.

CORRESPONDENCE.

DEAR MR. EDITOR.—I am too old a stager in Magazine writing to be disturbed ordinarily by any typographical blunder be it never so atrocious, but in the biographical sketches of Eminent Educators deceased in 1870, contained in the March number of the "Educational Monthly" there occurred one, which regard for a venerable and able theological professor will not allow me to pass unnoticed. On page 127, 10th line from bottom, the name of Rev. JOHN T. PRESSLY, D. D., one of the ablest and most distinguished clergymen of the United Presbyterian Church, is given thus, PUPLY, REV. JOHN T., D. D. Words fail me to do justice to that blunder. Yours truly,

AUTHOR OF "EMINENT EDUCATORS DECEASED IN 1870."

NOTE.—"Words fail me" in suitably deprecating the style of penmanship too frequently practiced by certain of the "old stagers" who puzzle compositors and proof readers. Sometimes they would fail to translate their own hieroglyphics, if they were not "Yankees" at guessing. EDITOR.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

PEABODY FUND.—The Trustees of the Peabody Education Fund distributed $111,000 last year, in sums ranging from two hundred to two thousand dollars. Wherever the people of a district establish a school of 100 pupils and guarantee three-fourths of the expenses of the school, the Fund Committee pay the teacher's salary. By thus helping those who give proof of a sincere desire for schools, the committee have been instrumental in securing instruction for very many southern children. The fund, $2,000,000, yields an income of about $120,000. About $10,000 of the income is reserved for extraordinary appropriations. A million and a half of Mississippi State bonds also belongs to the Fund, which, if paid, would add $90,000 to the income annually. Dr. Sears has had great success in securing the co-operation of leading Southern men in behalf of education.

Senator Revels strongly opposes the forced association

of blacks and whites in the public schools, holding the sensible opinion that race prejudices will be aggravated rather than removed by laws designed to compel intermixture and social equality.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The Board of Trustees appointed by the legislature to organize and conduct a State Normal School, without any expense to the State, have accepted the proposal of the town of Plymouth, and have determined to locate the school in that place. The town offered its Academy and boarding-house, the latter capable of accommodating seventy-five boarders; $5,000 for repairs; $1,000 annually from the district school fund, and $7,200 to be expended in conducting the school at the discretion of the Trustees, within the next five years.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The report of the General Superintendent shows that the increase of school houses during the year was 495 and that the whole number of school houses in 48 out of 53 counties in the state, is 2,113. The number of youth of school age in the State is 162,430, a gain of 11,483 over the number reported the year previous. The whole number of pupils attending schools during last year was 87,330, during the year previous 73,310, an increase for last year of 14,020. The average attendance during last year was 55,083, during the year previous 39,363, an increase for last year of 15,720. The permanent or irreducible school fund now on hand, amounts to $254,860,17. The amount of moneys received during the year, for school purposes, was $562,761; and the total value of school property in 48 out of the 53 counties, is $1,057,473,94.

MICHIGAN.—The principal statistics of the Annual Report of the State Superintendent are as follows: Number of districts, 5,108; children of school age, 384,554; gain since the year before, 9,780; average months of attendance, 6-9; school-houses—stone 78, brick 538, frame 3,867, log 627, total value $6,234,797; graded schools, 231; teachers—men 2,793, women 8,221; average monthly wages—males $52.62, females $27.31; private schools, 139; number attending them, 9,613; visits of County Superintendents, 6,621; of directors, 12,521; vol-

umes in school libraries, 150,826; paid for library books, $16,770,88; voted for libraries, $2,383.83.

LOUISIANA.—MR. THOMAS W. CONWAY, State Superintendent of Public Education in Louisiana, says that there is now in the State an efficient system of education which makes no distinction whatever between blacks and whites, and that the freedmen's schools are no longer necessary, but, on the contrary, they help to perpetuate the spirit of caste, and to keep the freedmen themselves from proper exertion, and the State from using the adequate means already under her control.

VIRGINIA.—The Committee of the Virginia Legislature has agreed that one-third of the Agricultural Land Scrip Fund shall be given to the colored people's college, and the remainder to the two State Colleges.

STRASBURG.—The German occupation of Strasburg has been promptly followed by the reorganization of Strasburg Academy, which has been raised to the rank of a University. The old professors have been retained for the most part, and will deliver their lectures in German hereafter. The endowment of the institution is to be increased, the design of the Germans being to make it a center of German influence for the conquered province.

CALCUTTA.—At the last examination of the Calcutta University, held in the beginning of this month, there were 1,905 candidates for the entrance examination, and 540 for the first examination in arts. The first entrance examination of the University was held in April, 1857, when there were 244 candidates. Every year has since shown a steady increase.

CONSTANTINOPLE.—Robert College, Constantinople, has 103 students, and 57 applicants have lately been refused admission from lack of room. The Sultan has presented to the founder, Mr. Roberts, the decoration of the Osmanieh, the highest order in Turkey.

THE *Scientific American* calls attention to the utter destitution of New York in respect of means of scientific education.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

REV. THOMAS K. BEECHER having been requested to write his opinion of certain School Books published by Messrs, A. S. Barnes & Co., takes occasion to commend "their aim, length, paper, print, pictures, and binding; their author, his enthusiasm, his success as a teacher, and his piety." He also explicitly says: "The books as they now stand, will be found, when used by ordinary teachers and average learners, pernicious in the extreme. They are inaccurate and inelegant, and I am sad when the publishers meet my criticisms with a triumphant boast that, bad or good, they have sold '*eighty thousand*' of them."

It seems that the enterprising publishers have used the *first* part of his opinion as an advertisement—which Mr. Beecher considers "a trick of trade more smart than honest."

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published a readable volume entitled "Our Girls," by Dio Lewis. It discusses, in a style peculiar to Dr. Lewis, girls' boots and shoes, how girls should walk, the language of dress, outrages upon the body, large *vs.* small women, idleness among girls, employments for women, false tests of gentility, piano music, study of French, dancing, sympathy between the stomach and the soul, sunshine and health, baths, home gymnasium, what to eat, amusements for girls, true education for girls, and heroic women.——"A Manual of Ancient History," from the earliest times to the fall of the Western Empire, by George Rawlinson, M.A. 634 pages.——"The Poetical Works of Alfred Tennyson, Poet Laureate." The illustrations are numerous and excellent. 308 pages.——"Notes, Explanatory and Practical, on the Acts of the Apostles," designed for Sunday-School teachers and Bible-classes, by Albert Barnes. Revised edition, illustrated. 418 pages.——"The Apple Culturist," a complete treatise for the practical Pomologist, by Sereno Edwards Todd. It is very fully illustrated with engravings of fruit, young and old trees, and mechanical devices employed in connection with orchards and the management of apples. 334 pages.

MESSRS. CHARLES SCRIBNER & CO. have added another volume to their Illustrated Library of Wonders,—"Wonderful Escapes." It is revised from the French of F. Bernard, and some original chapters are added, by Richard Whiteing. Twenty-six illustrations. 308 pages. ——"The History of Greece," by Prof. Dr. Ernst Curtius. It is translated by Adolphus William Ward, M.A. Vol. I., 509 pages.——"Chips from a German Work-shop," by F. Max Muller, M.A. Vol. III., Essays on Literature, Biography, and Antiquities. 492 pages.

THE UNIVERSITY PUBLISHING COMPANY have issued "A School History of the United States of America," from the earliest discoveries to the year 1870, by George F. Holmes, LL.D. It has an

Appendix, containing the Constitution of the United States, and the Declaration of Independence. It has several maps and many illustrations.——"An Elementary Algebra," designed as an introduction to a thorough knowledge of Algebraic language, and to give beginners facility in the use of Algebraic symbols, by Charles S. Venable, LL.D. 318 pages, badly bound.

MESSRS. HURD & HOUGHTON have just published "From Fourteen to Four-score," by Mrs. S. W. Jewett. 416 papes.

MR. E. STEIGER has just published Dr. Adolph Douai's "Kindergarten Manual," for the introduction of Frœbel's System of Primary Education into Public Schools, and for the use of mothers and private teachers. The book is introduced by a recommendation of Thomas Hunter, President of the Normal College, New York City.

MESSRS. DODD & MEAD have published a very neat little book for the young, entitled "Max Kromer:" a Story of the Siege of Strasburg, 1870. 184 pages.

MESSRS. BURNS & Co., 33 Park Row, N. Y., have sent us "Reading Lessons in Steno-Phonography," in accordance with Munson's Complete Phonographer. It has special reference to the use of word-signs and formation of phrases, with directory for self-instruction. The book is prepared by Mrs. Eliza A. Burns, an experienced and skillful teacher of Phonography. Also the "Self-Instructor in Steno-Phonography," being a full and reliable guide to the best method of Short-Hand Reporting.

ADRIAN J. EBELL, Ph. B., M. D., has published a little book entitled "Natural History," Part I., a Text Book extending to a history of classes among animals. 96 pages, price 50 cts.

MR. A. E. KRŒGER, St Louis, Mo., has translated from the German, "A New Exposition of the Science of Knowledge, by J. G. Fichte." Paper binding, 182 pages.

CHAS. C. CHATFIELD & Co., New Haven, have published No. 5 of their University Series of Pamphlets—"Scientific Addresses," by Prof. John Tyndall: 1. On the Methods and Tendencies of Physical Investigation; 2. On Haze and Dust; 3. On the Scientific use of the Imagination. 74 pages.

MESSRS. E. H. BUTLER & Co. have been induced, through the remarkable success of the small series of Mitchell's New Outline Maps, to prepare a LARGER series of Mitchell's Outline Maps, combining the political and physical features. The Map of North America, of this series is now ready. If we may be allowed to judge from this, the series will be superior, and will merit the attention of teachers and school officers. Its size is a happy hit; its beauty and accuracy are not surpassed. The moderate price fixed for the set will, we think, be appreciated.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE AND ARTS (Professors Dana and Silliman, New Haven, Conn.), for March, contains: "Discovery of Actual Glaciers on the mountains of the Pacific Slope, by Clarence King; Contributions from the Laboratory of the Lawrence Scientific School; Some Rocks and other Dredgings from the Gulf Stream, by S. P. Sharples; Calorimetric Investigations, by R. Bunsen; The Porcelain Rock of China, by Richthofen; Notes on Granitic Rocks, by T. S. Hunt; The Geology of the Eastern Uintah Mountains, by O. C. Marsh; and several other sterling articles." The Scientific Intelligence is as usual full, and interesting.

LITERATURE OF THE WAR.—The close of the gigantic struggle which has absorbed almost all other interests during the past eight months, naturally creates inquiry for the best connected account of a series of strategic successes that have not been surpassed since the campaigns of Julius Cæsar. In response to this demand, MacMillan has issued in a single volume the war correspondence of the London *Daily News*, undoubtedly the best record in our own language of the masterly movements of Von Moltke.

For pictorial representations our readers will not need to be reminded of the striking sketches published in the *Graphic*, some of the best of which have been reproduced in *Every Saturday*, and in Harper's *Weekly*. But for our German population and the increasing class of students of German literature, the best work that has come under our notice is that issued by the great Leipzig publishing house of J. J. Weber—"Die Illustrirte Kriegs-Chronik" (The Illustrated War Chronicle). We have already referred to this serial work. The numbers which we have since received fully sustain our former criticism. Unlike the English illustrated papers, this chronicle, as its title indicates, is expressly devoted to the war. Although the time has not yet come for an impartial and exhausting history of the Franco-Prussian conflict, we are satisfied from a careful perusal of its contents, that the chronicle aims at a truthful and accurate statement of *facts*, presented in clear and convincing language. The engravings, which are designed to be in the best style, embrace every thing that illustrates the course of events. The comparatively low price will ensure a large sale, and for our German friends we can recommend no publication so satisfactory. It may be obtained of B. Westermann & Co., New York.

MISCELLANEA.

DR. JOHN S. HART, Principal of the New Jersey State Normal School, has resigned; because engagements "less confining and more remunerative" have been pressed upon him.

THE Board of Education of the City of Brooklyn have had quite a lively time in adjusting their "Book business." At a recent meeting

of the Board, one of the members upbraided Mr. Kinsella for having advocated, sometime ago, the Arithmetics published by A. S. Barnes & Co., and having changed his mind—now urging the adoption of those published by the Messrs. Appleton, of whom he had spoken so differently a year ago. Thereupon Mr. Kinsella said: "In regard to having changed his opinion respecting some of the publishers, he was frank enough to admit that anything he had said on former occasions against the Messrs. Appleton, was mainly owing to data he had received from Messrs. Barnes & Co. The conduct of the Messrs. Appleton at their worst had been better than that of the Messrs. Barnes at their best. [Sensation.]"

RECENT DISCOVERIES.—Among the most important discoveries of the German arctic expedition was a new land, about thirty-six nautical miles east of Spitzbergen, and situated north of the seventy-seventh degree of latitude north. The new territory is larger than Spitzbergen, and presents a very wild and rugged appearance, being filled with almost perpendicular mountains and cliffs.

COULDN'T BE DUNNED—The other day a Montreal tailor sent his bill to a magazine editor. He was startled a few hours afterward by its being returned with the note appended, "Your manuscript is respectfully declined."

SCIENTIFIC.

A GERMAN telegraph operator has discovered a mode of sharpening, with mathematical accuracy, any number of steel or iron wires, by the agency of the magnetic current. The discovery may be applied to the manufacture of pins and needles, and do away with the present process of grinding the points, so injurious and extensively fatal to the workmen.

A FRENCH savant is said to have invented a method of preserving paleontological specimens. All fossil bones, upon being exposed to the air, are apt to fall away into dust. To prevent this, it is proposed to form over them a solution of silicate of potash. The liquid is absorbed immediately, and thoroughly hardens the objects.

THE construction of the railway destined to connect Arequipa with Puno and Cusco has just been commenced at its culminating point, five thousand yards above the level of the sea, which is double the height of the highest existing railway. At this elevation the air is only half as dense as it is at the level of the ocean.

A PROPOSITION is on foot for laying a new trans-Atlantic cable, which is to be smaller and lighter than those heretofore used. It is estimated that the cost of the cable will not exceed £250,000. A scheme for connecting England with all her colonies by telegraph is talked of.

THE fall of a large mass of rock between Heidelberg and Wiesloch has brought to light the works of a silver mine which was known to the ancient Romans. There is no silver ore of any importance left, but a very rich zinc ore is met with in large quantities.

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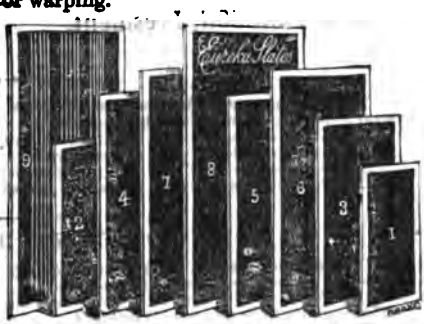

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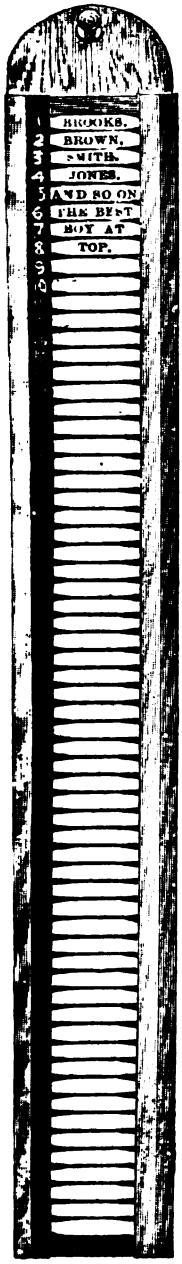

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The New York Teacher

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A Magazine of

Popular Instruction and Literature.

May, 1871.

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PROF. BAIL'S

Directions in Elementary Drawing.

(FOR TEACHERS.)

FIRST explain to the children the vertical line, by holding a pencil or pointer in a vertical position. Let the class follow your example by holding their pencils in the same position.

Draw a vertical line on the black-board. Point out the vertical lines on Chart No. 1. Call attention to the vertical lines of the windows and doors.

Next hold a pencil in a horizontal position ; explain this position, and show the difference between vertical and the horizontal lines. Draw a horizontal line on the black-board, and let the pupils hold their pencils in the horizontal position.

The oblique lines will next be explained. Show by the vertical line that when another line is leaning to one or the other side, it is an oblique, or slanting line. Draw a vertical line upon the black-board, then draw to the right and left of the same, oblique lines in two positions.

Explain parallel lines, by holding two pencils at equal distance from each other, and by drawing parallel lines on the black-board.

Explain next, the diverging and converging lines.

Show the pupils a foot rule, or draw a foot line on the black-board. Divide this line into twelve (12) equal parts. Explain that one-twelfth part of this line is an inch. Explain the length of an inch, making use of the little card with an inch line and dots, one inch apart, on it. Let the children raise their hands, and measure on their pencils, with the finger, the length of an inch. Then let them show the length of two inches upon their pencils ; three inches, and so on. Ask the relative size and relative distance of objects in the school room. What is the length of that book ? The breadth ? Draw lines upon the black-board, and ask the children the length of these lines. Draw two lines of equal length upon the black-board, one line in a vertical, the other in a horizontal position. The pupils will invariably decide that the vertical line is longer than the horizontal line. Show by measurement that they are alike.

When the children are sufficiently trained with these objects, and understand, or have sufficient knowledge of the length of one or more inches, you can commence with drawing, and teach the use of the pencil.

Draw first a vertical row of four dots, with one inch space between the dots.

Explain the position of the hand and pencil for a vertical line.

With one stroke connect the first dot with the second ; be sure that this inch line be made with the finger movement. Connect the second dot with the third ; proceed in the same way till the last dot is reached.

Continue to draw these lines in a parallel position, one inch apart, until the lesson is learned.

(The small children are not able on the first trial to draw an inch line with the finger movement in one stroke. It will therefore be well to let them draw half inch strokes in the manner indicated. As soon as possible, the inch stroke should be drawn.)

Let the pupils make four dots in a horizontal position, with one inch space between them.

Explain the correct position of the hand and pencil in drawing the horizontal line.

Connect the first dot with the second by a horizontal line, made by one stroke, and drawn by the wrist-movement. Do not let the hand and arm slide, in forming this line. Proceed from the second dot to the third, and so on till the fourth dot is reached. This will form the horizontal line.

Explain the oblique lines. Let the pupils make four dots, one inch apart, in an oblique position, from the right to the left, in a straight direction from the top of the slate down. Give the position of both hand and pencil in making this line. Connect these dots by finger-movement, with inch strokes. The oblique line, from the left to the right, is exceedingly difficult, unless great attention is paid to the position of hand and pencil, and also the movement of the fingers. With care it is soon mastered.

Review the four positions of hand and pencil.

Let the pupils draw lines in various positions, three inches in length. (Be very particular that the pupil does not turn his slate or paper, when making the lines in various positions; the paper or slate must never be turned.) Teach the pupils to divide these lines into two equal parts; three equal parts; and so proceed to five equal parts; and, if possible, farther.

Explain the broken lines.

Explain the angles by drawing several circles on the black-board, and referring to Fig. 11 on Chart No. 1.

Draw a horizontal line through the center of one circle; explain that this will divide the circle into two equal parts. Next draw a vertical line through the center; ask the children what lines you have made; let them give the names of these lines.

Show that you have divided the figure into four equal parts. ⊕

(Make this exercise interesting to the children. If you call the circle a pie, or jelly-cake, give one quarter of it to Mary; one to Frank; one to Jane; and one to John; show that every one has an equal part, and that such a part is called a quarter.)

Draw through the center of another circle a horizontal line; next draw an oblique line through the center; ⊖ ask the children if these four parts are alike; ask if Mary has as large a part as John, etc., etc. Draw now a quarter of the first circle on the black-board. ¼ ⌉ 1

Next Draw from the second circle a large and a small piece. ⌣ 2 > 3. Ask which is the larger piece; which the smaller.

Explain that when two lines cross each other, they form an angle at the intersection. Make examples. ∧ ⌣ ⌉ <

Explain that one piece or angle is more sharp and narrow than the other; and one more blunt than all the rest; that the quarter part is called a *right* angle; the small, or sharp part, an *acute* angle; the large and blunt part an *obtuse* angle.

Show the angles formed by the window sash, the panels of the door, to be right angles. Let the children point out right angles in the room in this way. Draw the right, acute, and obtuse angles on the black-board.

Older children will readily understand the angles by the degrees, in the following manner: draw several circles of various sizes upon the black-board. Make the pupil understand that every circle, whether the circumference is large or small, contains 360 equal parts. These parts are called degrees. Make the sign for degrees upon the black-board. Draw a horizontal line through the center of the circle, dividing it into two equal parts. The circle contains 360° (degrees), half the circle contains 180°. Draw next a vertical line through the center of the circle. This divides the circle into four equal parts, called quarters, or fourths. Each quarter contains 90°, being one-fourth of 360°. Show the four right angles formed by these lines separately. See Fig. 11, Chart 1.

The pupil must be made to understand that the angle of 90° is a right angle. Then explain the obtuse and acute angles. Any angle that contains less than 90° is less than a right angle, and is called an acute angle. An obtuse angle is greater than a right angle, and contains more than 90°. Draw next the acute and obtuse angles.

Point out the various angles on Chart No. 2 that are formed by the capital letters. Cause them thoroughly to understand these lines and angles. Hold up two pencils and form these angles.

Let the pupils draw the right angles.

Chart No. 2 is introduced to teach the pupils angles and proportional lines. When pupil can draw a right angle with the sides of equal length, a very difficult and im-

portant step has been surmounted. The square, a most difficult figure to form by the eye, has virtually been mastered; for if we connect two right angles of equal length, we have the square.

The long application required to make this step must become wearisome to the pupil, unless the exercise is varied by every possible means. When the child is made to understand that the lines he draws resemble something, his interest is at once excited. For example, the vertical straight line forms the letter I. The letter L forms a right angle, and a proportional line; as one is to one and a half, (1 to 1½); or, as two is to three. The letter T is composed of a horizontal and a vertical line, and forms two right angles, also two lines of equal length. The letter A is composed of two oblique lines, and one horizontal line, forms three acute angles, two obtuse angles, and an isosceles triangle. The letter X is composed of two oblique lines, forms two acute and two obtuse angles. The letter F is composed of one vertical and two horizontal lines. These lines are also proportional lines; the vertical line is three inches; the upper horizontal line two inches; the lower, one inch; it also forms three right angles.

Encourage the children to study these forms, and find out the different qualities of objects.

In drawing the letters on Chart No. 2, all the directions for the position of the hand, dotting, spacing, formation of lines given for Chart No. 1, must be strictly followed. The letters must be three inches in length. The teacher must see that the dots are equally spaced. (One inch apart.)

All persons commencing to draw, usually shorten the vertical line and lengthen the horizontal line. The pupil will make the vertical row of dots nearer together than the horizontal row. The pupils must be required to raise their slates and turn them, until the vertical row appears in a horizontal position. Thus the pupils will see their own mistakes, and be able to correct them. It is useless to correct these mistakes yourself. Your principal work consists in giving directions to the pupils for the correct performance of *their* work, and in leading them to see their own errors.

I will give a few examples of letters, to illustrate the way in which this Chart should be drawn.

Letter L.—Make a vertical row of four dots; number them from above, down, 1, 2, 3, 4. From point 4 make two dots towards the right, in a horizontal position; connect these dots by straight lines, observing the proper position of hand and pencil.

Letter T.—First take a horizontal row of four dots; number them 1, 2, 3, 4. Divide the space between 2 and 3 into two equal parts, by dot 5. Commencing below this dot, make three dots in a vertical position. Connect the dots.

Letter A.—Make three dots in a horizontal position, 1, 2, 3. Commencing above No. 2, make three dots in a vertical position; number 4, 5, 6. Connect by oblique lines, point 6 and 1, and 6 and 3. Divide these oblique lines into two equal parts; connect these dots with a horizontal line.

Letter W.—Make five dots in a horizontal position; number them 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. Below No. 2 make three dots in a vertical position, 6, 7, 8. Three dots in the same position below No. 4; number them 9, 10, 11. Draw oblique lines from 1 to 8; from 3 to 8; from 3 to 11; from 5 to 11.

Letter M.—Make a row of four dots in a vertical position, 1, 2, 3, 4. To the right of No. 1 make a horizontal row of three dots, 5, 6, 7. Make a vertical row of three dots below dot No. 7; number 8, 9, 10. Divide between 4 and 10 into 5 equal parts. Draw a vertical line from 1 to 4, an oblique line from 1 to 11, and from 7 to 11, and last a vertical line from 7 to 10.

For the gate, make four dots in a vertical position, 1, 2, 3, 4. To the right of No. 1, three dots in a horizontal, 5, 6, 7. Below No. 7 make three dots in a vertical position, 8, 9, 10. Divide the spaces between 1, 5, 6, 7 into two equal parts. Draw seven vertical parallel lines through all these dots. Divide between dot No. 1 and 2, also 3 and 4, into two equal parts. Divide between dots 7 and 8, also 9 and 10, in the same way. Draw the horizontal lines. Draw the oblique line.

In drawing from Charts Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7, the directions given for the Charts Nos. 1 and 2 are to be followed.

In making the triangles and squares, first make the dots giving the size and proportion of the figure, then connect by straight lines.

LOUIS BAIL.

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2d. The lack of time sufficient to give pupils that individual instruction made necessary by the systems of instructions heretofore in use.

3d. The mistaken notion that Drawing, either as a science or an art, can be acquired by transferring pictures from one piece of paper to another, without a systematic training of the hand and eye.

4th. The delaying of the study and practice of the art until the natural taste for the exercise has been out-grown, and the pupil's time has become too valuable to be pleasurably devoted to the training in elementary principles, necessary to ensure certain and reliable progress in the art.

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AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

MAY, 1871.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER IX.—(*Continued.*)

LIENHARD NESSELBORN'S father had held his position as village teacher for ten years. He had made himself conspicuous in the profession, by a long and successful career as rector of a city school, which position he had resigned for the sake of his health. He was decorated with an order, which his sovereign had bestowed on his twenty-fifth anniversary as a school teacher. Old Nesselborn was a veritable exception among school teachers—having some property of his own, not indeed the fruit of his teaching, but a bequest of some relative. This gave him a certain independence in performing his duties. And his sceptre was by no means an empty phrase, it was both visible and sensible in the shape of an old, dry ox-tail, dangling like Damocles's sword over the heads of the youthful Steinthalers, on the slender horse-hair of his patience. The appointment to his present position he had gained through the influence of his son, Lienhard Nesselborn, with the Baroness de Fernau, formerly Countess of Wildenschwert. For those who had been connected with this lady's former sphere of life, it was sufficient to utter a wish, to have it immediately gratified. Lienhard Nesselborn's father was appointed to the vacant place, and

the difference between his former and present salary was paid from the private purse of the Baroness. The inheritance of Mr. Nesselborn, sen., had considerably diminished, by supporting his older son, Lienhard, at the University, and by the extravagance of a younger son, who had died after a lingering sickness, leaving a widow and daughter in destitute circumstances. His son's widow had since died, and the grandfather was saving for little Gertrude, his granddaughter, what was left of his inheritance.

But we must return to our youthful vagabond, Robert or Bob Bartel. He soon returned from his hiding-place, to reoccupy the post at which we saw him. Having satisfied himself that the 'schulze' and the forester, whose name was Wülfing, had departed, he resumed his former occupation. Not half an hour had thus passed when he suddenly sprang up, and running along the edge of the forest, stopped a man who with slow steps and gloomy features was coming up on the same path that had brought the forester and the "schulze" to the scene. The new comer might have been taken for a laborer in a machine shop, or a charcoal-burner, had not a plume nodding on his hat, a gun hanging over his shoulder, and a cutlass at his side, betokened the hunter. He wore a gray blouse and trowsers, blackened in many places with soot; his hands bore the same marks, indicating his connection with charcoal burning, an occupation largely practised in the forest. On his back he had a large bag, which he let fall to the ground as Bob Bartel stopped him. It was strange that this bag should be filled with large round loaves of bread. One of them, when the heavy burden fell to the ground, rolled into the grass.

"What is the matter?" he asked, when the boy interrupted his progress.

The boy looked wistfully upon the bread which had just come fresh from the bakery. The loaves had still the smell of the oven, and this gratifying odor was made still more pleasant to the olfactory nerves of the hungry boy, by the well-known fragrance of caraway-seed. Bread thus spiced is called "holiday-bread" by the peasants.

"Father sends you word that he will meet you near Wolf's corner at eleven to-night. Mother is in Zwenkau. Mrs. Gitler has paid eight dollars in advance."

The surly looking man of the woods listened to the message, but did not reply. Bob supposing that he had not been understood, repeated his message.

"I have ears, my boy," interrupted the other, and after some deliberation, as if he did not like the message, he added: "Where is your father? He was not below."

"He has to repair a chimney at the tavern in Nauenheim. At eleven, then, at Wolf's corner. It is fine moonlight, said father, and you must not forget it, wood-ward!"

"I know well enough that the moon will shine to-night," replied the other laughing. His face was overgrown with bristling red and grizzly hair. He seized his bag, and cut a piece from the "holiday-bread" for the boy, which the latter began to eat with a will.

"How is your sister Marlene?" continued the wood-ward.

"She is going to accompany father to-night."

"Hum!" The wood-ward laughed loud from under his red beard, and took his departure in high glee, which was evidently owing to the last intelligence conveyed by the boy. The latter cried, "Good-by, Mr. Hennenhöft."

As to the bread-bag, which frequently was seen on Hennenhöft's shoulders, people had made many comments. But of late they seemed to have settled in the opinion that the wood-ward, living alone in the forest, was carrying that bread to his solitary house in order to provide himself with food for a longer period.

Oh wood-ward,[1] lovely herb, celebrated by the poets! How is it that *Asperula odorata* should have been joined with the forbidding form of the ward of the Wildenschwert, now Fernau woods? For the people thou art *the* ward, the master of the woods, the first conquerer, since by thy fragrance, thou art superior to all herb, grass and foliage, which in the days of May are struggling towards the golden light, repeating to the world the eternal miracle of resuscitated nature! Here thy beautiful name has been bestowed on an untoward, ungainly person, who for more than ten years has been superintending the extensive Fernau forests,

1 *Wood-ward, or wood-ruf* (*Waldmeister*), the botanical name being *asperula odorata*, a highly fragrant plant, indigenous in German forests, is especially used to increase the aroma of the light German native wines, by placing a few of its branches in decanters filled with wine. From the fact that the herb is gathered in the month of May, this very popular and delicious beverage is called *May-wine*.

overseeing the charcoal-burning, and the production of resin and tar, having the direction of the cutting and replanting of the forest-trees, while Wülfing, the forester, governs what leaps and creeps, what springs and sings within the forest.

While Bob Bartel, the little vagabond, was preparing for some new pastime, contemplating perhaps a raid on the school-house, to annoy the little flock on their homeward way, the lovely form of a young girl was emerging from the dark shadows of the beeches. The wild bees were playing in the flitting rays of the sun, around her little head, and in her apron lay the fragrant herb which she had just gathered in the forest. To-day being the birth-day of her grandfather, old Mr. Nesselborn, she intended part of her gatherings for the May-wine, with which that dignitary's anniversary was to be celebrated to-night. The aged gentleman had inherited a moderate quantity of wine in bottles from his second son, little Gertrude's father. The number of these bottles was in an inverse ratio to young Gertrude's years. It happened with them as with the Sibylline books. Their value increased as their number decreased. It was seldom that permission was granted to unseal one of the last remembrances of an early extinguished life. Such an exception was made to-day, at Mr. Nesselborn's sixty-eighth birth-day, thanks to the perseverance with which young Gertrude urged the request.

She was now in her thirteenth year. Her figure was tall for her age. Her light brown hair, fell in two long braids over her shoulders, in rural fashion. Her eyes were blue, intelligent, earnest, and even severe when she was assisting her grandfather in teaching school. For this occupation she had a peculiar aptitude. The most of the teaching was done by her grandfather, but her province was the general supervision of the children, the keeping of order, the preparation of junior classes, the control of the studies, and the maintaining of discipline at the children's coming in and going out.

Her complexion being dark, the sun could not do much damage to it when she was working in the garden, which was also her department. In short, she was a model child. Her countenance, always of an exquisite beauty, became

more so as she was gradually developing to womanhood. Thus the bud, while it swells, will indicate by its form even before bursting, the future flower.

Oh, how Gertrude disliked the boy Bob Bartel! And how powerful was her hate! When she was repeating to her pupils, in the Bible-class, the words: "I the Lord thy God am a jealous God, visiting the iniquities of the fathers," etc., her eyes would flash, her hands would clench! So they did now, when she saw that defier and despiser of the school, the frivolous and wicked son of still more frivolous and wicked parents. In order to return to the village, she had to pass the very spot occupied by the boy. When she was near him, one of the corners of her apron gave way, and some of the herbs fell to the ground. Bob immediately ran to her and picked up the plants. But that gallant service did not soften her feelings.

"You ought to be ashamed of yourself," she said, "to idle away your time, instead of being in school. I hardly believe you can write or read your own name."

"O pshaw," was the answer, "I can do that as well as other people!"

"And how wicked are the tricks you are playing! The other day you took away the boards over the mill-brook, so that poor old Margaret fell into the water, when she was returning home in the evening."

"Charles Newman did that."

"We all know you were seen at it. But that will soon have an end. The gens d'arme will take you up to school with your hands tied."

"Let him try it," replied the boy, "then my father will kill him."

"Kill him? Then your father must die on the scaffold! But what do *you* know of the sixth commandment, or of religion either!"

The boy laughed scornfully.

Gertrude's anger was rising fast. But the disrespect the boy had shown to religion had this time the effect of repressing her wrath, and awakening in her the determination to convert him. With a rapid glance she had surveyed him. He was bare-foot, and the rules required the children to wear shoes at school. So she began coaxing him to come to

school, and offered to provide him with shoes, if he would come and get them. But the boy scorned her advances. He had brand new boots himself, he said, which he might put on as often as he chose. But he would not go to school anyhow; his father knew more than her father, and could teach him all that was necessary for him to know. Bragging in this style, he went along with her, occasionally interrupting his taunts by whistling on his willow-pipes, or stripping leaves from the overhanging branches, and trying to elicit shrill sounds by putting a broad leaf to his lips.

While they were thus proceeding on their way, Gertrude found a fragment of an old newspaper, lying on the ground.

"Since you are bragging so much," she said, "read this paper!"

With a contemptuous smile he ran over the paper, and returned it to her, as if he had perfectly understood the meaning of the printed words.

"Indeed!" said Gertrude, and began reading the paper. She assumed a mien, as if she was greatly delighted with its contents. "How pretty that is," she said, as if reading to herself. "There was a boy whose greatest wish was to learn a mason's trade." Here she stopped, but seemed to continue reading silently. Bob became attentive, for he was to be a mason. "The boy was afraid to mount the scaffolds and ladders," she continued aloud, "for scaffolds and ladders are high, very high."

That was exactly his own case, and the scaffolds of the masons had been always for him an object of the greatest concern.

"But you ought to read the story yourself, Bob; it is too pretty!" With these words she held the paper before him; he stared awkwardly at it.

"If I had wings, said the boy, I would like to be a roof-slater," continued Gertrude reading, while Bob Bartel was looking with her at the paper. "Then I might put even a vane and a cock on the top of a church-steeple. Scarcely had the boy expressed this desire, when he heard a cock crow in his mother's court-yard, and lo! a small, very small man stood close by the fence—"

Here Gertrude stopped again, and Bob was sorry that Gertrude was now again reading to herself. From time to

time she was laughing, affecting the great interest that she took in the story. Then she read again a few passages aloud:

"You must get a tailor's measure, cried the little man, and if you wish to mount a scaffold or a steeple, you need but—" Here her voice again subsided, but after a minute or two she continued:

"The little apprentice, whose name was Freddy, now always took the tailor's measure with him, when he was going to climb on a scaffold, or on a roof. And all the people wondered how safely little Freddy could walk on the roofs and the scaffolds, and could perform his work so well! And his master gave him at Christmas a new leather apron, made of the finest chamois, and a trowel of pure, solid silver; but one day—" Here the little missionary became silent again.

Meanwhile the two had arrived at Steinthal. The heat was oppressive. Bob wiped the perspiration from his forehead.

"Yes, Bob," said she, "you must learn to read by all means. Then you may read for yourself all these beautiful stories; and I will present you with a book, full of the most charming tales."

"Wait here, one minute!" suddenly cried the boy, and ran rapidly to his father's little house which was near. Gertrude wondered what he was going to do; but she was almost afraid to remain. She knew that Marlene, Bob's oldest sister, was a wicked and dangerous character, shunned by all decent people in the village. Indeed her scolding voice was soon heard:

"What? You are going to school, you crazy fool? You want to put on your boots?"

But Bob Bartel, undismayed by this harangue, ran from the house, pursued by the hooting and taunting of the numerous members of the Bartel family. With his boots on his feet he soon had joined his new friend and protector, Gertrude.

Many educators have awakened the zeal and interest of children by imparting to them the first rudiments of knowledge in the form of fairy tales. This principle Gertrude had just now practically tested.

The school-house, which was entirely slated on both weather-sides (north and west), belonged to a rather remote period, when Germany had not yet understood that teaching did not exclusively belong to discharged soldiers or invalid tailors. It was in the latter part of the last century that a German nobleman, Baron of Rochow, made the first attempt to transfer to the sphere of peasant-life the rather exclusive and aristocratic educational ideas of Basedow, generally called the "philanthropic system." At that time the Steinthal peasantry became alive to the cause of education, and it was then that the school-house was erected. Only a few improvements were needed to make it answer the present requirements, if they were not strained too much. The roof was weather proof, the windows were solid; the south and east fronts were planted with wild vines, which had crept up to the top of the roof. Two large linden-trees, near a stone stair-case with iron railings, gave a refreshing shade to the front rooms, though they made them rather darker than was desirable, and invited singing birds, which by their melodious noise often interfered with the instruction of the classes within.

When Gertrude, partly by moral, partly by manual suasion, marshalled her embarrassed convert into the main school-room, the children were reciting their Bible-lessons. One of the boys was repeating, "Idleness is the beginning of all vice." The effect of Bob Bartel's appearance was instantaneous, and manifested itself in the most tumultuous manner. Even the grandfather could not help joining in the ejaculations of the boys, and found it difficult to restore order. The aged master thought it necessary to address the youthful opponent to universal education in a set speech. He congratulated him upon his joining the cause of progress and civilization. He felt so thankful for being thus unexpectedly released from the dreaded conflict with the ill-famed Bartel family, that he offered a particular prayer in behalf of Robert Bartel. After these preparatory steps he separated his flock in their different departments, of which he had five, in order to spare the feelings of the new comer, and to expose as little as possible his ignorance in the forthcoming "examination" which he had to undergo.

Meanwhile Gertrude had deposited her fragrant burden

on moist sand in the cellar. On her return she had occasion to admire the consummate tact with which her grandfather had taken hold of the boy, who in his examination had exhibited such profound ignorance that he had to be assigned to the very lowest class of beginners. While the more advanced scholars were writing in their copy-books, or cyphering on their slates, or committing their next lessons, he instructed the junior department according to a plan devised by himself in his young days. This was to impart a knowledge of the alphabet by the aid of imagination. It was more than thirty years ago, when object-teaching first came in vogue, that his skilful hand had drawn and painted in water-colors a set of pictures, mounted on pasteboard, which represented the different letters. The letter A was illustrated by the picture of an ape, made familiar to every child by itinerant jugglers; B was made the attribute of a bear; F was represented by a fox; G by a goose; H by a hen; and so on. The entertainment thus afforded to the children was quite exciting. The single pictures were made to have some similiarity with the letter represented, which letter was also added in large size. Thus the Egyptian hieroglyphics formed the transition to real letters, and even the old Hebrews gave to their letters forms similar to natural objects. The letter K in old Nesselborn's system was represented by a camel (*Kameel* in German), the form of which animal was borrowed by the old Jews to represent the letter G. As soon as the different forms became perfectly familiar to the children, the pictures were covered, and the letters had to be called without pictorial assistance, when the children would be apt to call the letter K the camel. Even the combinations of letters, as Ab, Ac, Ad, were introduced by means of the same kind of pictures. In these first exercises the existence of two characters, a capital and a small one, for the same letter, and the confusion caused thereby in the minds of the children would often raise the old teacher's indignation against the mediæval monks, who by this superrogatory invention had done a bad service to primary education. How did he lament the fruitlessness of Jacob Grimm's persistent efforts to expel the nuisance of capital letters from our alphabet!

It was in this way that Bob Bartel was initiated by the

old teacher in the mysteries of reading. When school was dismissed at noon, he expressed to Gertrude his fears that the boy might not return to school in the afternoon. But Gertrude was of a different opinion. Punctually at one o'clock Bob Bartel justified her confidence by his re-appearance in the school-room. In the evening Gertrude had a discussion with her grandfather as to what conclusion should be given to the story, the beginning of which she had "read" to the boy. And the old man blessed his grandchild, and with deep emotion thanked her for *her* birth-day present, which was a human soul. Then she said: "As for my story, we must leave that to our minister; he knows the best conclusion for it."

A NEGLECTED EXERCISE.

ONE cannot pay frequent visits to the nursery, or watch the development of growing children, without being struck with the progress made from generation to generation by the simple act of getting born. In this way, if in no other, we obtain a satisfying assurance of the perfectibility of the human race, with some glimpses of the process by which, in its various stages, the breed of man is improved. There is consolation in it, too, for the failure of great men to leave offspring as great as themselves; Providence having chosen rather to disperse their inheritance, and make each the humblest of the human family the heir of Moses, and Socrates, and Goethe, and Newton, and Franklin.

In a certain household I have seen a child, scarcely more than a year old, recognize, not only photographic portraits of his parents and relatives, but rude drawings of domestic animals which he had seen. There was nothing specially precocious in this, but Sir John Lubbock tells of savage tribes now existing (for example, in Australia), who utterly fail to comprehend the purpose of drawing: "One traveler showed them a large colored engraving of an aboriginal New Hollander, which some declared to be a ship, others a kangaroo, etc." This fact alone marks the enormous distance between the conditions which, more or less vaguely,

we call barbarism and civilization. The child referred to had also a rather remarkable aptitude for pointing out and being directed to objects both near and remote. Everybody knows what a difference there is among individuals in this respect; but it would appear to be a gift of intellect rather than of eyesight. Mr. Macgregor, in his narrative of travel in the Holy Land,[1] gives an amusing description of his efforts to get from a parcel of Arabs the names of certain villages in plain view. "It was scarcely possible," he says, "to point out any of the knobs on the horizon, so that any two men beside me should agree upon what they were asked to look at." He continues:

"The following catechism will show what had to be digested into knowledge fit to record in a map, and in the colloquy *Q.* is the English enquirer, and *A.* is the answer Arab."

"*Q.* You see that little group of huts near the big tree?"

"*A.* Yes, where the water flows quiet; that is Absees."

"*Q.* And the next huts to the left?"

"*A.* Tell el Schady. By the Prophet! it's a fishing station. Great for fishing is the Ingleez; but this is in the reeds ('rab')."

"(Voice in the crowd): 'Dowana' is the name."

"*Q.* What name did you say last?"

"(Voice): 'Zahmouda,' (which voice, after much wrangle, turns out to be not the same that spoke first).

"*Q.* Which is Zahmouda?"

"(Three people point in three directions, and instantly begin a subsidiary debate).

"*Q.* Look along my ramrod. Now, what's the name of the hamlet it points to?"

"*A.* Dowana."

"*Q.* Why, it's what you said was Absees?"

"*A.* El Absees the Howaja sees to the right of Zahmouda."

"*Q.* But where *is* Zahmouda?"

"First voice, and a general chorus—the second voice being stifled by cuffs): 'Next to Tell el Schady.'"

A still higher faculty is needed to understand a topographical drawing—what is technically called a plat or plot,

1 "The Rob Roy on the Jordan," p. 240, Am. Edition.]

or, of buildings, a ground plan. Take an illiterate Irishman and endeavor to show him his way in town or country by a rough sketch of the roads, and turns, and landmarks, and he will study it with the same profit as he would the Cyrillic alphabet or the inscription on the Moabite stone. Here is a three-year old brother of the infant aforementioned, who stands at my elbow as I draw the plan of his home. This, I tell him, is the piazza, and this the front door; now where is the parlor we are in? where shall I draw the piano? where the door leading into the drawing-room? out of which window must we look to see the pond? which one looks on the lawn? etc., etc. And all these questions my little gentleman answers promptly and intelligently.

But let us return to our Arabs. Grant that they saw in the landscape what the strange traveler could not, as an Indian will see to a greater distance on a prairie than a white man not equally at home there, or as a sailor marks the distant ship long before it comes within the landsman's horizon. Bring one of them to apply his eye to a microscope, and, if it were possible to get a report from him of what it revealed to him, we should find it fall far short of what the scientific owner of the instrument could discover with the same power. The educated eye observes not only what is before it but what ought to be there; and knowledge sharpens the vision as spectacles or a lens would sharpen it. The writer had occasion not long ago to examine some photographs printed by a new process, to which it would have been a fatal objection that they reversed nature. The face of a clock easily furnished the proof that they did reverse it, and confirmation was then found in the portrait (of an unknown gentleman) showing the vest buttoned from right to left, and the watch carried in the right hand fob instead of in the left. Except for the fact that he was seeking for a clew, the observer in this case (as would all but one in a thousand) would have failed to notice these two important facts announced by the picture.

A suburban neighbor of mine had driven, on his way to and from the railroad station, for upwards of a year through an avenue of fine trees, and yet, when they were alluded to in his presence, confessed he had never seen them. What

seems gross blindness in this case is only an extreme degree of a common want of perception. Hundreds of persons would observe a rock by the wayside to one who would notice the lichens on it; and fifty might take in the lichens to one who would be struck with the color of them; and ten might distinguish the colors to one who would note that they were more brilliant in winter than in summer. Every specialist will of course see best in the field in which he has most trained himself; but Agassiz was probably right in saying that his practice at the microscope had made him a better shot than the average.

I have dwelt, in the case of the infants with whom I began, on certain powers, in regard to which they not only compare to advantage with the adult savage or ignorant civilized man (strange necessity of speech!), but illustrate very well the tendency of the age. The cultivation of the senses is both the cause and the consequence of our material progress; and our higher systems of education are undergoing a change which will eventually subordinate the imagination to perception, attention, comparison, as being the faculties of the first importance. For if it was true two hundred years ago, as Pascal wrote, that "the world is grown mistrustful, and will believe a thing only when it sees it," much more is it a truism to-day. Now of all the exercises which have thus far been insisted on or tolerated in our American common school instruction, I know of none which more naturally falls in with the scientific requirements of the new education than drawing. Obviously, if rightly taught, it induces those habits of observation and exactness which are the substratum of the skilful chemist, the wise physician, the profound naturalist, the student, in short, or professor of nature in her every guise.

Whoever can learn to write can learn to draw, it has been said, and with truth. There is, indeed, a natural aptness for manipulation which will always make it easier for some to draw well, as to write well, than for others; but the hand will improve in dexterity as the eye will in acuteness, if the intellect itself is capable of being addressed. Natural deficiency can be overcome, as natural talent can be increased, if sufficient pains are taken. The common notion of draw-

ing as an art to be taught, is the copying of pictures already made—a process in no respect different from map drawing, especially when aided by outlines. But one who sets up stakes at varying distances from the pupil—calling for guess measurements—and who ends by playing a game of quoits with him, is really assisting at a drawing-lesson. He too is a good master who takes his pupils into the open air, and calls on them to witness the forms of the clouds, the outlines of the hills, the character of the rocks, the dip of the strata, the shadows which betray the conformation of slopes, or which the cedars fling at sunset across the country lane; tells them the names and characteristic forms of trees, shows the shapes of leaves and the arrangement of branches, and marks the delicate tints of the bare stems in autumn or in winter; notes for them how a dull sky, hiding the brilliant blue which outshines all earthly radiance, brings into relief all the lovely colors of marsh and field; points to the changed aspect of water under different skies, and as it flows over rocks which resist it or are disintegrated by it; discusses the sunrise and the sunset, and the theory of the enlarged appearance of sun and moon on the horizon. It is after walks like these that the pencil will be taken up with a surer grasp, and the copy made be truer to the life, than many a lesson in holding the one or finishing the other.

The ease of drawing should not, however, be underestimated. It is, in fact, immensely difficult to represent things as they are, requiring unwearied patience, single-eyed devotion to truth, and sincere humility. These virtues will be cultivated if the enthusiasm is maintained, but this may flag for want of a little judicious doctrine which the intelligent teacher will covet the opportunity of giving. Examples of the best art will also serve as a stimulus, especially if stress is laid on the principle that the greatest merit of the most eminent artist does not exceed his who works as well and as conscientiously as he knows how. However, I verge here upon Utopian ground. For shall we ever substitute the simple rule of *Do the best you can* for *Try to outdo every body else?*—a rule which would have made France content with being *a* great nation, instead of striving to be *the* "grande nation." Must the ambitious lad, of delicate constitution,

fall out of school because his application is too intense, and the dull boy lapse into indifference because he never can near the head of the class, in order to allow the tougher ones to dispute the rewards of having learned by rote what they are led to consider the sum of all necessary knowledge? Let there be one study at least, which shall correct this narrowness of vision; which shall lay open the infinite breadth of nature and the vast labor needed to compass even the smallest part of her. Let this lead not to despair, but to sober and humble endeavor to seek for knowledge for its own sake—for the realities of the universe, and to put away illusions. Whoever teaches drawing in this spirit may be sure that he is widening the gap between the civilized babe and the adult barbarian, and digging at the common grave of superstition and ignorance.

P. CHAMITE.

LEGAL PREVENTION OF ILLITERACY.

IF Mr. Bergh had set out to organize a Society for Compelling Kindness to Animals, his efforts would scarcely have been crowned with success. The most considerate and tender-hearted horse-owner would resent a law presuming to compel him to treat his beast with humanity; and would most likely be a trifle discourteous to any volunteer inspector of stables who might fall in his way.

But a Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals is a very different matter. It has a specific and legitimate object—the suppression of wrong. It interferes only with the vicious and brutal. The great majority of the community, who feel no disposition to abuse their "poor relations," and whose sensibilities are shocked by every exhibition of brutality, are protected, not oppressed, by its operations and its founder, though laughed at, now and then, for some real or apparent excess of tender-heartedness, is honored throughout the land, in a practical way that must be very pleasing to him.

It is to be regretted that the originator of the phrase, "Compulsory Education," had not been blessed with Mr. Bergh's good judgment in choosing a name, or had not had

a clearer understanding of the real work to be done. *Compulsory Education* is an unhappy expression. It implies something radically different from what it is, or should be, aimed at; and by threatening an offensive and uncalled-for interference with private affairs, it alienates those who would naturally be the warmest friends of the object to be attained, and whose sympathy and support are most required. The great body of American parents desire the education of their children. To very many it is a duty which nothing could induce them to neglect. They are willing even to make great sacrifices for the sake of other and less fortunate children. At this juncture a well-meaning but bungling reformer comes along and says, in effect, if not in so many words: "I will have a law compelling you to educate your children." "We do that already," is the indignant reply; "so far as we are concerned, your law is an impertinence; it is worse, it is insulting. Be so kind as to mind your own affairs."

The trouble is, the would-be reformer is working the wrong lead, as the miners say. The thing to be accomplished is not the compulsory education of all the children in the community, but the securing of school privileges for those that are now deprived of them. The two things are as unlike as a law compelling kindness and a law preventing cruelty. The end to be attained may be the same in both cases, but the way to it is direct and legitimate in the one case, indirect and illegitimate in the other. Laws should be framed to repress and punish wrong-doing, not to restrict the liberty of those who do well.

But there are those who will not do their duty by their children, it is urged, or who do not admit that the education of their children is a duty. What shall be done with them? The answer is simple: Make them do their duty. A man abuses his horse, denies him proper food and care, or drives him when sick or lame—the law does not hesitate to interfere to protect the animal and punish the brute. Shall it do less for a child than for a horse? One of the inalienable rights of every child is a chance to make the best of the life thrust upon him. This right society is bound to respect, and does respect, in part, by protecting the child against

physical maltreatment and cruelty. As our civilization is constituted, a certain amount of learning is as needful in the struggle for existence as a normal development of body and limbs, and the same arguments that justify intervention in the former case justify it in this—when it is necessary. Existing ignorance is mainly beyond our control. Our millions of illiterate men and women will, in all probability, continue illiterate for the rest of their lives. But they will not live forever: and we are able, and it is our duty, to prevent other millions of the same sort, by seeing that the coming generations are kept from growing up unschooled. How shall the community, or the State, or the nation—which are but different names for the people in their collective capacity—go to work to secure this end?

Obviously the first step is to provide sufficient school accommodations for all the children needing instruction. This step has not yet been taken. The second is to offer instruction really suited to meet the necessities of those to be taught. This step will require greater effort than the first, for it demands a thorough overturning of the matter and methods of our popular teaching. The third step is to give instruction at such times, and for such periods, that the children of all classes can avail themselves of it. The prevailing opinion seems to be that the children are for the schools, not the schools for the children. When school managers realize that the reverse is the truth, and act accordingly, there will be fewer children excluded from the schools by their inability to comply with arbitrary and unwise conditions.

After all this forming and reforming has been accomplished, there will, perhaps, be still some children deprived of schooling by the indifference or criminal selfishness of parents and guardians. For these society must interfere; the rights of the children must not be sacrificed to folly or greed. The offending parents and guardians, if there be any, must be compelled to do justice by those in their care. But this contingency is far off. Let us see first whether such compulsory measures are necessary; whether any children *will* be kept from learning when proper instruction is offered them in a proper way, and at a proper time.—*Christian Union.*

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART NINTH.

THE PEOPLE'S INFLUENCE, 1700–1870.

"The multitudinous Public, shaped into personal unity by the magic of abstraction, sits nominal despot on the throne of criticism."

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE.

THE AGE OF POPE, 1700–1745.

WE have already indicated the fact that since the year 1700, English literature has felt the power of popular influence very strongly. We saw that literature was affected when, in the sixteenth century, there was a great struggle against the power of popery. There was another great struggle in England, and we have marked it somewhat, which only ceased in 1688. It was directed against prerogative, and resulted in permitting more freedom to the people. The sentence at the head of this article is extracted from Coleridge's *Biographia Literaria*, and its meaning will be more apparent, perhaps, if we read it with the context. Speaking of the "petulance and presumption" which he considers will follow the diffusion of literature, Mr. Coleridge says: "In times of old books were as religious oracles; as literature advanced, they next became venerable preceptors; they then descended to the rank of instruction friends: and, as their number increased, they sank still lower to that of entertaining companions; and at present they seem degraded into culprits to hold up their hands at the bar of every self-elected, yet not the less presumptory judge, who choses to write from humor or interest, from enmity or arrogance, and to abide the decision 'of him that reads in malice, or him that reads after dinner.' The lame retrograde movement may be traced, in the relation which the authors themselves have assumed towards their readers. . . . . Poets and philosophers, rendered diffident by their very numbers, addressed themselves to '*learned* readers;' then aimed to conciliate the graces of the '*candid* reader;' till, the critic still rising as the author sank, the amateurs of literature collectively were elected into a municipality of judges, and

addressed as the Town! And now, finally, all men being supposed able to read, and all readers able to judge, the multitudinous Public, shaped into personal unity by the magic of abstraction, sits nominal despot on the throne of criticism."

In spite of the cynical tone of this characteristic passage, we must admit, that it delineates the transition from the days when the author, standing upon a higher plain, condescended to address the public, to the time when, as at the beginning of the last century, he began to appeal directly to the people as his patrons.

We may take Daniel Defoe for our first example of the influence of the people. Dr. Craik says, that "in enlargement of view he was far in advance of all the public men of his time." We perhaps think of him chiefly as a novelist, but he was fifty-eight years of age before he began to write in that style, and had been using his pen for the people a quarter of a century. During these years he had treated almost every subject that the progress of events made prominent. One of his strong traits was honesty, and the fact that he never wrote without a purpose, and an important one, gives a permanent value to what was often only intended for a present emergency. Defoe does not obtrude his personality in his compositions, and is in this respect in strong contrast to Dean Swift, who is considered as at the head of the writers of prose of the period.

The portion of the period of the people's influence under consideration in this paper, from 1700 to 1745, has been called the Age of Pope, for not only does it coincide almost exactly with the literary life of that poet, but he is the most prominent man of literature of the time. Pope's style is analagous to that of the French period which we considered last, but, as Mr. Coleridge says, he belonged to "that school of French poetry condensed and invigorated by English understanding."

Pope's rank among men of letters has been the subject of a great deal of discussion. Mr. Lowell, in his latest work has given us a very thorough disquisition on Pope, which the student will delight to read. Pope was remarkable for his translations and imitations, and this is not characteristic

of a vigorous original author. It is true, however, that some of his works are strongly marked by originality, and that he was successful in producing graceful, pleasing, and harmonious, if not forcible verse. He conceived the great end of an author to be to please his readers, and accepted literary excellence as a good in itself. He was of Romish parentage, though personally his religious convictions were not strong, and his intimacy with the sceptic and libertine, Lord Bolingbroke, exerted an influence upon his character. His education was irregular, his temper irritable and uncontrolled, he was remarkably fond of the society of the fashionable world, and was over-sensitive about the opinion in which he was held by others. He has been styled the "prince of the artificial school of English poetry," and his lack of faith and earnestness is reflected in the age which he influenced. His *Essay on Man*, and *Essay on Criticism*, contain a very large number of lines that appear, from the frequency with which they are quoted, to be indelibly impressed upon the popular mind. The following, taken at random, exemplify this remark:

"Order is Heaven's first law."

"'Tis education forms the common mind:
Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclined."

"Some to church repair,
Not for the doctrine, but the music there."

"For fools rush in where angels fear to tread."

"The last and greatest art, the art to blot."

And in prose, in which Pope would be considered a master, had he not so high a rank in verse, he has shrewdly remarked, "I never knew any man in my life who could not bear another's misfortunes perfectly like a Christian."

Another writer of this period was Samuel Richardson, who wrote epistolary novels of excessive length entitled *Pamela*, or Virtue Rewarded; *Clarissa Harlowe;* and *Sir Charles Grandison*, which are full of minute description, but were eminently popular when they appeared. Richardson did not appear as an author until he had reached the mature age of fifty.

Henry Fielding is sometimes called the father of the English novel. He wrote Joseph Andrews, Tom Jones, Amelia, and Jonathan Wild, in which he depicted low life as it then existed.

Jonathan Swift has already been mentioned. He was the author of *Gulliver's Travels.* His life was a mystery, and his works are comparatively little read.

Of the other writers of this time, we must content ourselves with merely mentioning John Gay, who wrote the favorite ballad, *Sweet William's Farewell to Black Eyed Susan;* James Thomson, author of the *Seasons;* Isaac Watts, whose hymns every one knows; Joseph Butler, author of the *Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Cause of Nature;* Bishop Berkeley, author of the *Theory of Vision;* Allan Ramsay, who wrote *Lochaber-no-more;* Lady Montagu, the letter-writer; William Shenstone, who wrote the *Schoolmistress;* Edward Young, author of *Night Thoughts;* Laurence Sterne, who wrote *Tristram Shandy;* Thomas Chatterton, the precocious and unfortunate poet; and Tobias George Smollett, author of *Roderick Random, Sir Humphrey Clinker,* and a *History of England.*

ARTHUR GILMAN.

A DUTCHMAN'S DIFFICULTIES WITH THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

II.

ONE evening, when a party of friends were with us, we had a conversation about the Dutch and the English languages, which soon grew into a friendly and amusing controversy. Steven von Brammelendam, in his usual humorous mood, held that the Dutch was the best and most perfect language in the world. He believed it was spoken in Paradise. One of our friends agreed with him there, in so far that he believed it was spoken by the serpent. Upon this Steven quickly answered: "Natural, for the cunning animal knew that it would not be understood in its own language, which was English." However little complimen-

tary this explanation was to our English feeling, yet Steven earned the applause of the whole company. To prove his assertion as to the perfection of the Dutch language, he pointed at the various sizes of its words. "If you come to us for words," he said, "we can serve you in all manners. We have words so short that they only exist in two letters, for example: *ei*, which in English is *egg*. Here, you see, we are thirty per cent. shorter than you. On the other hand, if you want a long word, take this:

"*Verbeeldingskrachtsontwikkelingswerkzaamheden*, which means: Operations for the development of the power of imagination. Or this: "*Middenwinteravondtydkortingsgesprekken*, which means: Intercourses for shortening the time during the evenings in the middle of the winter."

He wrote the words down on a slip of paper, and we could not help admitting that we were unable to put English words of equal length against them. We then tried to imitate him in pronouncing them, by which means the whole company assumed the appearance of an assembly of people who were suffering from sea-sickness, or whose food had got into their windpipe. We gave up the experiment, declaring that our throats were too refined for such barbarous proceedings.

"Barbarous proceedings!" Steven exclaimed cheerfully. "No, *you* are barbars!" "Barbers!" cried all of us. "Ah, Steven," I said, "you must know better, since you experienced that neither the landlord at the 'Entire,' nor the clerk at the savings bank, was able to 'raze' you." Steven looked into his dictionary.

"Excuse me, I mean you are barbarians," he answered. "Nothing is so barbarous as *your* pronunciation. You speak out *lieutenant* with an *f*, and *colonel* with an *r*. Is that not totally unrhymed? Yesterday I met a gentleman who told me that his name was *Da-el*. He gave me his card, and I read, Mr. *Dalziel*. You swallow up your words like oysters, shells and all. *Cholmondelis* becomes *Chomly; Leicester* evaporates into *Lester; Colquhoun* melts away into *Kehoon*. What in the world do your letters serve for if you don't speak out them? If you meet with a word of some length, you pick out one syllable, which you pronounce with a strong

accent, while the remaining syllables are rattled away with such a speed that no human ear can understand them. Some days ago, I heard two gentlemen talk over the American war. As far as I could make it out, they disagreed over the question whether the broken union could be restored. In this discussion the one made frequently use of a word which apparently existed in many syllables, but the only one I could understand was *rap*, or *rep*. At length, after much sharp listening, I discovered that it was *irreparableness*. Now, I know this word wholly good. I have hundred times the word *irreparabilis* in Latin read and written. But with *such* a pronunciation would even Cicero, with all his knowledge of Latin, tumble into the ditch. And then, what a ridiculous way of putting the accent!—you place it exactly there where nobody thinks of to place it. *Photography* is composed of two Greek words,—*phos*, light; and *graphia*, writing. The *to* is merely a syllable for to link the two together. It has no meaning of itself; yet you leave the *pho* and the *gra* alone, but you place your accent upon that miserable, good-for-nothing *to*. It is just like building a spire on the roof of a fire-engine house. So I heard, yesterday, two ministers, in full earnestness, discuss the question whether, in *bicentenary*, the accent ought to be on *cen* or on *ten!*"

Steven here paused, but no one wishing to interrupt him, he proceeded: "And were you yet but regular in the placing of your accents! But you are, upon this point, so despotic, that the Turkish Sultan may take his hat off to you. In *photography*, you place the accent upon *to*. Very good; we must allow it, because we can do nothing against it. But, in *photographic*, you at once, without to ask somebody's permission, transplace the accent upon *gra*. This is really inhuman. I protest against such arbitrarity in the name of all the nations who come to your country. We have the right of to expect that your language, as being a human language, be speakoutable, following rules which are learnable by men. But your pronunciation is like a ship without helm and compass in the open sea. I believe it is lighter to set the cackling of ducks and geese upon notes, than to make rules for the pronunciation of the English language."

In this way. Steven scolded us in his Anglicised-Dutch style, of which I have tried to give you an idea. While reading over what I have written, however, I find I have only given you a poor copy. Sometimes he was quite unintelligible from translating a Dutch word wrongly, or taking a wrong word from the dictionary. I had then to come in as interpreter, and, with the aid of my knowledge of the Dutch, try to put him on the right track again. I recollect he said, "in this supervision," instead of "in this respect;" "to traduct" for "to translate;" an "underputting" for a "supposition;" to "come over one" for to "agree;" an "underseparation" for a "distinction." To a lady who made an objection to one of his statements, he said, "I believe I can easily overharness you." He meant to say, "I can easily convince you." And there were a great many other odd mistakes which made us laugh heartily, and contributed to our amusement.

Now, as to Steven's invective against our irregular pronunciation, we were obliged to plead guilty. But one of us ventured to say something in defence of our language by pointing out its practical tendency, the simplicity of its grammar, and the conciseness of its structure.

"Oh, speak there not of!" Steven replied, in his amusing tone of mock indignation. "Yes, you are short in your expressions, but one must not ask what you sacrifice to that. You hold house among the foreign languages with true Vandalism, and you break the neck of the finest words to make them useable for your abbreviationism. So by example, take the word *omnibus*. Is that not a beautiful Latin word? Well, how did you handle it? You chopped off its tail, and threw its head and body overboard; and thus you got the word *bus*. On the contrary, with the word *cabriolet*, you went to work in the round-turned manner; you chopped off the head, and threw away body and tail, and thus you have the word *cab*. That is really dealing with languages like a butcher. What a confusion must there come forth!"

"True," I said, interrupting him. "You experienced that yourself the other day, didn't you, when you were staying with Mr. Hayborne, and had to go to a tea-party?"

"Oh, yes," he replied, "it was with the cab. I had dined

with Mr. Hayborne, and we should drink tea by his cousin, Mrs. Johnis (Mrs. Jones). 'We will take a cab,' he said to me. 'A cap?' I asked. 'Is that usage in this country by evening parties?' 'Yes,' he said; 'why not? You see it will rain.' 'Just so,' I answered; 'it would corrupt our hats.' 'Of course, it would,' he said. So I went into the hall to take my cap from the cloth-rake, meanwhile thinking by myself, 'how parsimonious those English are with their hats!' I could not find my cap on the cloth-rake. The servant had brought it above in my sleep-room. I rang the bell for a candle, and went above. Meanwhile the cab came before the door. Mr. Hayborne came up to me. 'What keeps you?' asked he. 'Why,' answered I, 'I cannot find it. The servant said to me it is here upon my sleep-room.' '*What* is here?' asked he. 'Why, the cap.' 'The cab?' he said, bursting out. 'Do you expect the cab to come up to your bed-room to take you to a tea-party?' I then comprehended my misguessing, and laughed heartily for it."

"I wonder you speak our language so well after so short a stay in our country," said one. "Oh, I find that it is very difcult," Steven replied; "and I believe that I make much errors." "Of course, there are some faults, but they are not of such a kind as to prevent us from understanding what you mean. They are more amusing than perplexing. As, for instance, when you said you 'went above,' instead of 'upstairs.'"

"Indeed," Steven said. "Do you always say 'upstairs?' Then I suppose you also say, 'under stairs?'" "No, 'downstairs,'" cried some voices.

"Ah, that is very difficult," Steven sighed. "You are very irregular and arbitrarious also in the use of your prepositions. How can we ever learn it? You say, by example, that a child, for its support, depends *upon* its parents. Now, is that not absurd? We say, in Dutch, that it depends *from* its parents, and I think that we have it right. For 'to depend' literally signifies 'to hang down,' just as that picture to the wall 'hangs down' from the nail which supports it; thus the child, as it were, 'hangs down' from its parents. Now, would it not be absurd to say that the picture 'hangs

down' *upon* the nail? Just so absurd it is to say that the child depends *upon* its parents."

"I never thought of that," said one; "but I must confess you are right." "I am glad for that," Steven replied. "*Of* that," I remarked, correcting him. "*Of* that? But did I not hear you say this morning that you were 'sorry *for*' something?" "Yes; we say, 'I am glad *of* it,' and I am sorry *for* it.'"

"Ah, that is frightful!" Steven exclaimed. "Glad *of*, and sorry *for!* Just the world turned upside down! The preposition *of* always more or less shuts in the idea of 'disinclining from,'—at least, of 'moving away from.' So you say, by example, that I am *of* Amsterdam, which is the same as *from* Amsterdam. Yet you unite this word with *glad*, which is one of the strong expressions of inclinations towards an object. On the other side, you unite *for*, the preposition of favor and inclination, with *sorry*, a word which expresses grief, displeasure, and dislike."

"Indeed," one of the ladies observed, "it never struck me that we used our prepositions in such a strange way. It really must be perplexing to a foreigner to learn all such irregularities."

"Oh, I am disgusted from them," Steven replied in a joking tone. "*With* them!" several voices burst out. "*With* them?" Steven replied. "Do you say, 'I am disgusted *with* that drunkard?'" "To be sure we do."

"Well that is most absurd. We Dutchmen are disgusted *from* him; we do not want to be *with* him at all. Disgust seems to bring forth a strange effect in you; it drives you to be *with* the object which you dislike. I suppose you consequently say, 'I am pleased *from* my wife and children.'"

"No, no—*with!*" the gentlemen cried. "We are all of us pleased *with* our wives. No mistake about that." "So whether you are disgusted or pleased, it is all the same," Steven replied satirically. "You must always be *with* them."

A great many other prepositions were brought up for discussion, upon which Steven gave his opinion, much to the amusement of the party. Among others, the verb *to put*, with its numerous prepositions and equally numerous

significations, became a source of most amusing controversy. How "to put up," for instance, could mean "to place, to expose, to dwell, and to have fellowship with," it was quite impossible for poor Steven to understand.

In my next, I will give Steven's experience at a public meeting of the "Society for Training School Teachers."

"THE SCHOOLMASTER IS ABROAD."

SOME of our readers may have forgotten, and others may never have heard, who was the author of this familiar saying. The words were uttered by Lord Brougham, in a speech on the promotion of Wellington to the Premiership after the death of Canning. The connection in which they occur gives added force to them, and many will be glad to scan the whole paragraph in the midst of which the now familiar saying had its first setting:—"Field Marshal, the Duke of Wellington, may take the army, he may take the navy, he may take the great seal, he may take the mitre. I make him a present of them all. Let him come on with his whole force, sword in hand, against the constitution, and the English people will not only beat him back, but laugh at his assaults. In other times the country may have heard with dismay that 'the soldier was abroad.' It will not be so now. Let the soldier be abroad if he will; he can do nothing in this age. There is another personage abroad, a personage less imposing; in the eyes of some, perhaps, insignificant. *The schoolmaster is abroad;* and I trust to him, armed with his primer, against the soldier in full military array."

THE DIFFERENCE.—"After staying eighteen years in this country," said Prof. Agassiz, "I have repeatedly asked myself what was the difference between the institutions of the old world and those of America; and I have found the answer in a few words. In Europe everything is done to preserve and maintain the rights of the few; in America, *everything is done to make a man of him who has any of the elements of manhood in him.*"

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL.[1]

FOR several years the question of compulsory attendance at school has received some consideration in this country. Since our public schools were made practically free in 1867, it has been more seriously discussed, and the advocates of the measure now urge its immediate adoption as the next decisive step of progress.

The pendency of a bill before our present Legislature, "making it compulsory upon parents and guardians to send their children to public or private schools," suggests the propriety of some remarks upon the subject in this report.

The argument in favor of the measure, briefly stated, as I understand it, is that universal education, if not indispensable, is highly conducive to the welfare of the body politic; and that the State, having adopted a system of free public instruction, and having provided to a great extent for its maintenance, should require the attendance of all children of suitable age, who do not receive instruction elsewhere, in order that the benefits of the schools may be fully realized.

It is also contended that such a requirement would not be an unwarrantable interference with the appropriate authority of parents and guardians over their children, but a justifiable intervention in behalf of neglected children who, it is claimed, are entitled to proper care and cultivation of their minds, just as rightfully as they are to food, clothing, or protection.

Compulsory attendance is not a new power in education, although it has never been fully resorted to in any of the United States. The most stringent regulations of the kind, in this country, are those embraced in the laws of our own and of some other States, relative to idle and truant children, and which authorize their arrest and commitment to places of employment and instruction. Our own statute of 1853, upon this subject, is limited to cities and incorporated villages; but it is not enforced, and it is said that similar laws are not executed in the other States. In many of the European States obligatory attendance is an old rule, and in

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1 Extract from the recent report of Hon. Abram B. Weaver, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, New York.

some of them a rigid one. It has been most thoroughly tested in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, in the greater part of Switzerland, in Prussia where it has been in force for a full century, and in several other German States. It has been attempted at different times in France, where it is said that "compulsory education is ancient and of noble origin," in Austria, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, but has wholly or partially failed. Even in Prussia, which is commonly cited as a model in this and in other school matters, the well nigh universal education which prevails is not, in my opinion, principally due to the stringency of the law requiring attendance.

Any such law, even when strictly executed, in itself educates no one in anything except unquestioning obedience to superior power. It is only a police regulation to bring the bodies of children to the school-room, or to punish for their absence; whereas, the real efficiency of a system of education must depend upon what it teaches, not upon the number of its arrests and penalties; upon its adaptation to the recognized wants and interests of a people, instead of its power to compel their reluctant acceptance of it; upon its moral strength and influence, rather than physical force.

The Prussians believe in education with a unanimity and sincerity which compulsory attendance but faintly expresses. They are not only earnest in this sentiment, but are patiently and persistently thorough in the execution of it. They not only propose universal education, but provide for it in a plan that employs every known facility, and which adopts every discovered improvement.

The operation of their school system is not entrusted to undisciplined novices, to be used by them temporarily as a means to their own ulterior interests. Teachers are as thoroughly trained for their vocation, as those who enter the profession of law or the ministry, and are held to a rigid standard of qualification with reference to their natural adaptation to their work, as well as their learning. Thus prepared, their admission to their profession is a guaranty of superior attainments, and an assurance that they are worthy to become the teachers of the people. In support of all this, public sentiment dignifies the whole enterprise with the highest respectability, and contributes to its service, in teach-

ing and supervision, the best talent of the nation. It is this thoroughness, this completeness, this unyielding pursuit of perfection in the character of the instruction given, that has chiefly done for Prussia the work which so many admire.

This opinion is confirmed by the example of Holland. In a special report particularly devoted to the subject now under consideration, prepared by direction of the Legislature, and transmitted to that body in 1867 by my predecessor in office, the late Hon. Victor M. Rice, it is stated, in connection with an expression, by the author, of his belief "that in this country education can be universal without being compulsory," that "in Holland every adult citizen can read and write. Attendance at school has never been enjoined by law, but supervision has been carried to an extent which would hardly be deemed legitimate in the State of New York. Even in a private school, nobody is permitted to teach without having first been examined and licensed by the proper authorities."

And further, it is recorded "that great efforts had been made, in the debates on the clauses of the law, to procure a more decided recognition by the State of the principle of compulsory education. * * * The usual arguments for compulsory education were adduced—that other countries had successfully established it—that ignorance was making rapid strides for want of it—that in China, where it reigns, all the children can read and write. It was replied that compulsory education was altogether against the habits of the Dutch people."

Here, then, we find two neighboring States in both of which education is practically universal, but in one of which it is obligatory, and in the other voluntary. If compulsion was calculated to exert a controlling influence in the matter, we might expect to find the distinction plainly illustrated in Switzerland, in all parts of which State attendance is obligatory except in the cantons of Geneva, Switz, Uri and Unterwalden. In Geneva, however, it is authoritatively stated that education is so prevalent that, at times, a native adult, who could not read and write, could not be found. Thus, experience has demonstrated that compulsory attend-

ance is neither a certain nor an essential means to universal education.

In view of the proposition to establish it in our own State, the question arises whether we have so completely perfected, applied, and exhausted all approved methods, and so completely failed with them, as to render a resort to it here advantageous and expedient. In my judgment, the educational record and condition of our State give a negative answer to this question.

In prosecuting this inquiry, some consideration of what has thus far been accomplished is necessary to a correct conclusion. Fortunately, New York was settled by a race that, in Holland, founded the first common school system established in Europe. The Dutch colonists, animated by the liberal and enlightened sentiments of their native country, brought the schoolmaster with them to their new home; and it is claimed by writers, who have investigated the subject, as a historic fact based upon early colonial records, that they opened in New Amsterdam, now New York city, the first public school in America.

More distinct mention of the schoolmaster, as an officer of the West India Company in 1629 and 1633, and also of a public tax for his maintenance in 1638, is made in the authentic records of that company, which, at the dates mentioned, administered the affairs of the colony under the auspices of the home government. As the number of settlements in the colony increased, the public schools multiplied and were uniformly cherished by the people.

But it was not until 1795, that the State aided the work. At that time there was appropriated the sum of fifty thousand dollars a year for five years, "for the purpose of encouraging and maintaining schools in the several cities and towns in this State, in which the children of the inhabitants, residing in this State," should be instructed in certain specified branches of a good English education. A plan for general education was first adopted in 1812, when our common school system was inaugurated. The original school term of three months in the year has been lengthened by several extensions to its present legal limit of twenty-eight weeks.

The rate bill plan, that repelled attendance by directly taxing it, was in force from 1814 until 1867, except during the brief trial of the free school law of 1849, which was not in peaceful operation long enough to exert any material influence upon the condition of education, and which, though twice approved by the popular vote, was declared unconstitutional by the courts on account of its conditional provisions, and was repealed in 1851, when a State tax of $800,000 annually was substituted.

In 1856, a general school tax of three-fourths of a mill upon each dollar of valuation was authorized, and the avails of that tax, together with the income of the Common School Fund established in 1805, and such part of the income of the United States Deposit Fund as was annually appropriated therefor, and which in the aggregate never exceeded $1,468,423 in any one year, constituted the largest amount of pecuniary aid annually contributed by the State, to the work of Public Instruction, prior to 1867, when our school system was radically amended and its efficiency greatly improved.

The rate bill was then abolished, and the true practice of making attendance free, and of making the cost of the public schools a charge upon property by general and local taxation, was applied and still continues. The general tax for public schools was increased to one and one-fourth of a mill upon the dollar. That tax now yields nearly two and one half million dollars, which sum is augmented by the appropriated income of the permanent funds above-mentioned, so that the aggregate amount of public school moneys annually disbursed by the State, at the present time, is about two million eight hundred thousand dollars. As a consequence, the aggregate attendance which in 1867, the last year of rate bills, was 949,203, increased to 970,842 in 1868; 998,664 in 1869; and 1,026,447 in 1870. All this increase occurred in the public schools. Official reports giving the aggregate annual attendance at all our institutions of learning from 1864, when the present basis of enumeration, which includes all between five and twenty-one years of age, was adopted, to the present time, indicate the ratio of attendance in the several years, as follows:

Years.	No. of Children between 5 & 21.	Whole No. attending Public schools.	Total in all schools.	Per cent. in all schools.
1864	1,307,822	881,154	951,677	72.8
1865	1,398,759	916,617	1,007,737	72.4
1866	1,364,675	919,309	1,019,069	74.7
1867	1,375,982	946,203	1,058,165	76.8
1868	1,464,669	970,842	1,128,142	77.
1869	1,463,299	998,664	1,161,155	79.4
1870	1,480,761	1,026,447	1,192,094	80.3

Let it be distinctly noted, that, in one single year of a period of tuition embracing sixteen years, more than eighty per cent of all children within the State, between the ages of five and twenty-one years, attended some public or private school. Of that number, all those in the public schools attended for an average term of about four months.

But our period of pupilage is eight years longer than that of Prussia, which includes only those between six and fourteen years of age, and our ratio of attendance is correspondingly less by reason of the greater number embraced in our enumeration. Making a just allowance for the number of those below six years of age, who are not sent to school because of their infancy, and another just allowance for those between fourteen and twenty-one, who have acquired a sufficient business education, and have betaken themselves to active pursuits, and still another just allowance for those who, although they do not attend school during any one particular year, have attended or probably will attend during several of the other fifteen years of the school period, and, I believe, it is a fair conclusion that the school attendance in our State is at least ninety per cent upon a basis like that of Prussia.

Our latest statistics, made without reference to this question, show that the number of scholars attending school in 1870 was greater than the whole number of persons in the State between six and fourteen years of age, or between six and seventeen.

It is a notorious fact that the principal part of the ten per cent of absentees consists of the homeless and truant children of dissolute and improvident parents in the cities and villages; while the experience of every observing person tells him that cases are extremely rare of parents who pro-

vide for their children in other respects, but who wholly neglect their education. These vagrants could not be held practically amenable to a law merely enforcing attendance, because they are destitute of food, clothing and shelter.

But there is a law upon our statute books applicable to their condition, and which, if enforced, would remedy the greater part and the worst part of the delinquency complained of. That law is the act of 1853, "to provide for the care and instruction of idle and truant children," and that law is a dead letter. The enforcement of it would satisfy every argument that can be advanced in favor of compulsion, to the extent of the great number of persons subject to its provisions, and, in addition, would supply them with physical comforts unprovided by parental care, train them to habits of industry, rescue them from the depravity to which they are exposed, and give them an opportunity to become respectable citizens. And yet, with such a statute unemployed, a demand is made for a compulsory law which could not be enforced against the destitute classes amenable to the existing law, but which would be directed against those who are not idle, nor truant, nor vagrant, nor vicious, and which might be made the means of annoyance and oppression to many well disposed people.

Moreover, the statistics above referred to show incontrovertibly, in my judgment, a better result in the matter of attendance than in any other one feature of our schools. The people have already, by their own voluntary action, contributed an attendance which more nearly approaches completeness, than the instruction approximates a reasonable standard of excellence.

Our school system is, throughout, more perfect in organization, than in results. It is palpable that the prominent defect, that calls for speedy reformation, is not incomplete attendance, but poor teaching. This is partly inexcusable, but is chiefly owing to the immaturity of our educational work. In this remark, I speak of the State at large, with its twelve thousand schools. I would not wantonly disparage them. In the popular estimation of the country, and according to reliable accounts, they are equal to those of other States, though not so systematically lauded as some. In all parts of our State, we have great numbers of teachers

and of schools that might profitably be taken as models here or elsewhere.

I do not allege that any of our schools are not worth attending. I speak of the needed improvement in the particular mentioned, in comparison with compulsion, as a means of securing attendance; and I contend that, before sending out ministers of the law to force children to school, we should place genuine teachers in the school-rooms to attract them, and faithful officers in the field to supervise the work and to cultivate an enlightened public sentiment which, by its radiance, shall render the pathway to the school bright and clear. Let the attendance at school of every child within the State be secured, and that would not improve the schools in other respects; but let the schools be made what they should be in themselves, and it is more than probable that there will be no occasion to send for pupils. In any event, the improvement in question should be made, and, in my judgment, it should be made before resorting to the doubtful experiment of compulsion. It cannot be done suddenly, by legislation. The reform must be worked out. It was to accomplish this very object that, in 1866, our Normal school system, which at that time embraced but two schools, was expanded by the establishment of four more. The number has since been increased to nine, of which six are now in operation, and two more will soon be opened. It is thus apparent that this project is still immature, and, before the influence of these training schools for teachers has been developed and exerted, it would seem to be unwise to adopt force as a substitute.

There is another consideration worthy of notice in discussing this question. Our people need education in something besides the elementary branches taught in the schools. If it is desirable that they should be able to read and write, in order to inform themselves so as to judge correctly and act prudently in public affairs, it is equally important that the habit of self-control be constantly cultivated. It is perfectly consistent for a monarchical government, which manages all its concerns by the exercise of a central power, to enforce education, although it might otherwise become as thorough and as general. That policy inculcates submission to arbitrary authority. The habit of acting under

command, even in matters which are proper, destroys manhood, and begets a servile disposition; while freedom in the exercise of one great privilege might awaken a spirit of independence, and a consciousness of capacity dangerous to potentates who claim the right to rule. But the citizens of a free State need the discipline of self-government. They should understand that there is a personal interest in the willing discharge of every public duty. They must learn to take care of themselves in the matter of education, as in other respects, if they would remain their own masters. They should realize that power belongs to them, and, in addition, not only that the instruction of the schools is beneficial, but that the education which results from the practice of inquiring, and of doing voluntarily, what is essential to the intelligent exercise of their power, is also essential to its preservation. The secure foundation of a free government is not alone the preference of a people, but their willingness to keep themselves prepared to administer it successfully. That disposition must be kept alive and active by constant exercise; and when it becomes so deadened that compulsion must be used instead, the spirit of freedom will have perished already, and the form will not long survive.

FRENCH MODESTY.—M. Teydeau, a French author of some note, closes a letter to the N. Y. *Tribune* with the following characteristic remarks: "The horrible year of 1870, "which will be in history forever accursed, year of death, "year of sterility, will not give its date to a book, to a statue "or to a picture, or to a page of music, or to a scientific "discovery, or *to any progress whatever in any part of the* "*globe, for the day when France extinguishes her torch, darkness* "*covers the universe.*" The whole letter is an amusing pendant to the bombastic shriek of Victor Hugo, who declared in a "proclamation," addressed to the Prussians, that Paris was *the light of the world*, and that its capture would be a crime against civilization and mankind (!) F. H.

"HARD STUDY KILLS NOBODY."

ONE of the many arguments for compulsory education may be found in the fact that many anxious mothers entertain the curious notion that *brainwork impedes the physical development of the child.* When parents are remonstrated with for not sending their children to school, they frequently reply, that they are afraid lest the mental exertion involved in learning, studying and committing to memory, may prove detrimental to the bodily growth of their little ones. It is true, parents generally acknowledge the importance of regular instruction, but, as their own children are uncommonly apt to pick up knowledge, singularly quick to comprehend, greedy of information, and ever ready to grasp at mental food, as, in fact, *their* children are perfect prodigies, it would be highly dangerous to burden the sensitive and delicate frames with the daily work of school life: regular recitations would only overtask the precocious intellect. What is needed, in the opinion of many parents, is to check the morbid ambition of their wonderful children, and to restrain their inordinate thirst for knowledge, lest they become enfeebled and eventually crippled by the great strain to which their brain is exposed in school.

There are, within a stone's throw of my residence, several families in which children whose ages range from eight to thirteen years, are kept out of school on such a frivolous pretext. They are allowed to spend their time in listless idleness, to roam in the streets (whenever the weather is mild enough for the tender plants), to pour over trashy story-books, and to hang about generally.

The truth of the matter is, that mental exertion *per se*, so far from interfering with a healthy expansion of the body, actually promotes it, inasmuch as a harmonious growth of the whole man depends upon the uniform development of *all* faculties—physical, mental and moral. Brainwork is injurious to bodily health only so far as it encroaches upon that portion of time which ought and should be given to physical training, recreation and out-door play. What the proper ratio of study to exercise and amusement should be, is a question which cannot be settled by any abstract rule. The answer must and ever will vary in different cases. But

it admits of no doubt, that a certain amount of mental *work* is as necessary for the young as a certain amount of play. If "all work makes Jack a dull boy," all play will make of him something worse. Moreover, those very children whose natural propensity to acquire knowledge is thus neglected and "restrained" under the mistaken idea that any amount, however small, of earnest and systematic school-work will weaken the frame, are not the ones to be eager and hearty in their play. They are, in a great majority of instances, permitted to waste their time in a kind of "busy indolence," lounging in rocking-chairs, engaging in the small talk of family gossip, and perhaps weakening their "precocious" intellect by reading insipid stories and novelettes, that make nobody either wiser, or happier, or better.

It is refreshing to meet with such articles as the one we quote from Hall's *Journal of Health.* The writer seems to hit the nail on the head when he says: "Thought is the life of the brain, as exercise is the life of the body. There can be no more such a thing as a healthy brain, as to the mental department, without thought or study, than there can be a healthful body without exercise. And as physical exercise preserves the body in health, so thought, which is the exercise of the brain, keeps it well. But here the parallel ends; we may exercise work too much, but we cannot think too much in the way of expressing ourselves, for both writing and talking are a relief to the mind; they are, in a sense, its play, its diversion. Pent-up thoughts may kill, as pent-up steam wrecks the locomotive. The expression of thought is like working off the steam from the boiler. When clergymen break down, or public men or professors in colleges or other literary institutions get sick and die, the universal cry is 'study,' 'too much mental application.' It is never so; not in a single case since the world began; we defy proof, and will open our pages to any authenticated case. If a man will himself sleep enough, and will eat enough nutritious food at proper intervals, and will spend two or three hours in the open air every day, he may study and work and write until he is as gray as a thousand rats, and will still be young in mental vigor and clearness. When was there a man of renown who lived plainly, regularly, and temperately, and died early?"

STOCKBRIDGE, MASS. F. H.

CRAMMING IN BOSTON.

THE Boston correspondent of the New York *Tribune*, (whom we believe to be Mr. Lawson) makes some startling developments regarding the Boston Public Latin School, and gives some opinions of physicians and clergymen, which we reprint.

In New England we are proud of our schools—but they are not perfect. In this city we have many noble schools, but they are to a considerable extent as imperfect in their system of education as they are in their system of construction. In Boston we have always looked upon our Public Latin School as the best educational institution of the kind in the country. Wendell Phillips has said it has no equal in the world, although the School Committee do not think so. It is a good school; but recent developments in regard to the discipline there would indicate that it is rapidly tending to destroy the bodies and minds of its pupils by the cramming system.

A few weeks ago, Stillman B. Allen, Esq., of this city, a well-known member of the Suffolk bar, and also prominently identified with our religious and educational interests, and who has a son in the Latin school, after investigating the regulations of the school, was of the opinion that some reform there was imperatively necessary. The Latin school has about 250 scholars. Mr. Allen had printed a circular, which he caused to be given to the pupils, with the request that they should hand it to their parents to sign, if it was consistent with their ideas on the subject. The following is a copy of the circular:

To the School Committee of the City of Boston:

The undersigned, parents or guardian of one or more boys in the Public Latin School, respectfully represent that, by present regulations, many of the boys are required to study five hours a day in school and three hours out of school, which, allowing two hours and a half for going to and returning from school and for dinner, occupies all the time from half-past 8 o'clock A. M. to seven in the evening, every day, from Monday morning to Saturday night, thus giving little or no time for rest or recreation, and leaving the boys weary and exhausted at the close of each week. A strong healthy body is essential to usefulness, and we believe that this requires, and that vigor of mind would be promoted by allowing more time for rest, and that proficiency in studies would in the end be promoted by the strength of both body and mind thus acquired. We therefore respectfully ask that in this school no attendance or studies be required on any Saturday except the one set apart in every month for public exercises.

The circular was, unexpectedly, signed by 203 parents of boys in the school. Mr. Allen's next step was to get the doctors enlisted in an opposition to the cramming system of the school, and he succeeded admirably. The following circular was sent out:

DEAR DOCTOR—Assured that you take an interest in the education of the young, and have a special regard for our Public Latin School, which is sending so many boys to Harvard and other colleges, I beg to call your attention to the petition, a copy of which is enclosed and which many parents will soon present to the School Committee. None know better than a physician the value of health and vigor of body and mind to the scholar, and if in your opinion the rest asked for, after the intense study of five days, would conduce thereto, will you please to sign and return to me by mail the memorandum on the next page, adding such further statement or suggestion as occurs to you? Hoping to hear from you without delay, I am, &c.

The result was that 153 of the best physicians in Boston signed the circular, including Drs. Bowditch, Williams, Foye, Nichols, C. A. Walker, Read, and others of equally eminent note. Dr. C. A. Walker signed the petition, and added that "this overtaxing of the young often laid the foundation of paralysis, softening of the brain, and kindred diseases, now becoming fearfully prevalent." The petition was as follows—

To the School Committee of the City of Boston:

The undersigned, a physician in regular practice in the city of Boston, respectfully represents that his attention has been called to a petition about to be presented to you by the parents of boys in the Public Latin School, asking "that in this school no attendance or studies be required on any Saturday except the one set apart in every month for public exercises." The suggestions in the petition named meet my views. I am clearly of opinion that the rest asked for would promote the health of the boys and add to their mental vigor, and I therefore concur with and join in said petition.

Subjoined are some of the memoranda made by some of the physicians, which were numerous and unanimous:

Dr. Clement A. Walker, Superintendent of the City Hospital for the Insane, says: "I cannot doubt that the modern system of forcing the tender brain of youth lays the foundation for the brain and nervous disorders of after years—the cases of melancholia, paralysis, softening of the brain, and kindred diseases becoming so fearfully prevalent. Lessons that require more than two hours of study out of school are too long. I have been a teacher, and I think I know." Dr. Daniel V. Foltz says: "I have had two sons complete the Latin School course of instruction, and both had ruined constitutions as the consequence. One sleeps in Mount Auburn, and the other was obliged to leave college without finishing the course, and has never been able to resume his studies. Both are melancholy comments on the overtaxing, exhausting system of instruction pursued." Dr. E. B. Moore says: "I am of the opinion that no lessons should be assigned to *scholars out of school*, leaving it voluntary with each to study or rest. I have a son now in the insane asylum, the result of excessive study and disappointed ambition." Dr. George W. Gray says: "I wish that in all of our schools the pupil might be made to remember less, and think and reflect more. Our minds, like our stomachs, can digest just so much and any over spoils the whole—especially is it so with the young—before the mind becomes matured." Dr. Peter D. Walsh says: "The result is an over-taxed brain, a dwarfed body, a weakened intellect, a variety of diseases, and premature grave." Dr. Joseph H. Warren says: "I now cordially sign the above, as I

can see the ill effects on our son, now attending this school, from the long continued drill required in study, without sufficient rest for mind or body." Dr. Charles C. Street says: "And for the same reason I am fully convinced that no school should be allowed to have a session on Saturday." Dr. Arthur H. Nichols says: "From my own experience, having spent six years at Boston Latin School, I can bear witness to the fact that the constant indoor confinement of the boys often results in serious and permanent injury to health." Dr. George A. Stuart says: "Of late years the majority of diseases seem to have assumed a nervous type, which in most cases may be traced to over-taxation of the mental powers of the young, both male and female. To quote a countryman of mine, 'It is weel eneuch to teach the young idea how to shoot, but dinna use too big a gun.'" Dr. Alfred C. Garrett says: "I most heartily approve of this step, as two of my boys have been in this school. The study out of school hours ought to be abolished." Dr. Charles Both says: "I would not allow my own child to study more than three hours a day. If a child cannot in this time acquire the wisdom of any professor ordinarily spoken, either such child, teacher, or teachers, must be idiots." Dr. J. B. Treadwell says: "Hundreds of pupils of our public schools are ruined in health every year; this I know from personal observation. I take great pleasure in aiding any scheme for reducing the hours of study." Dr. Howard F. Damon says: "The amount of vital power has its limits, and these limits, in my judgment, are far exceeded by the present system of over-taxing the pupils in our public schools, and especially in the Public Latin School."

Mr. Allen labored to secure the influence of the clergy, and addressed the following circular to many of them:

REV. AND DEAR SIR—Knowing the interest you take in the education of the young, and the special regard you have for the Public Latin School, which is preparing so many of our boys for the various colleges and universities, I beg to call your attention to the petition, a copy of which is enclosed, which many of the parents will soon present to the School Committee. The long hours of hard study—the most severe in any preparatory school in the country—if continued to Saturday night, leave the boys weak and tired and unfit to enjoy the rest and teachings of the Sabbath day. It is within the knowledge of the writer, that some of the boys, too exhausted by the protracted labors of the week to master Saturday's lessons for Monday's recitations, regularly study them on the Sabbath rather than lose place in their classes. Make Saturday a day of mental rest, of physical exercise and recreation, so that the Sabbath may be a day of bodily rest and of pleasant studies of those great truths which no scholar should forget or neglect, and on Monday the boys, fresh, vigorous and clear-headed, will be ready for the classics again. If you concur with the views expressed in the enclosed petition, will you please to sign and return to me the memorandum?

Sixty-five clergymen of the city, both Protestant and Catholic, signed the petition annexed to the circular. Among them were the Revs. E. E. Hale, James Freeman Clarke, D. C. Eddy, Wm. B. Wright, A. A. Minor, J. D. Fulton, R. C. Blumkersrof, E. C. Webb, E. Cheney, and others of distinguished note; and all of whom expressed the deepest and warmest interest in the reform. This does not, however, embrace all the evils of our school system, but is one step

in the right direction. A great wrong has unwittingly been going on in our midst. The bodies and minds of the young have alike been dwarfed and injured by the terrible pressure brought to bear upon them; and now that the attention of parents, physicians, and clergymen—the part of Boston which thinks and feels—has been called to some of the evils, there is hope that a better state of things may be inaugurated, and the "slaughter of the innocents" cease.

THE NAMES OF PAPER.

PRINTERS are sometimes asked why various kinds of papers obtain the peculiar names they bear. Here is the reason: In ancient times, when comparatively few people could read, pictures of every kind were much in use where writing would now be employed. Every shop, for instance, had its sign, as well as every public house; and those signs were not then, as they are often now, only painted upon a board, but were invariably actual models of the thing which the sign expressed—as we still occasionally see some such sign as a bee-hive, a tea-canister, or a doll, and the like. For the same reason printers employed some device, which they put upon the title-pages and at the end of their books. And paper-makers also introduced marks by way of distinguishing the paper of their manufacture from that of others; which marks, becoming common, naturally gave their names to different sorts of paper. A favorite paper-mark, between 1540 and 1560, was the jug or pot, and would appear to have originated the term *pot* paper. The foolscap was a later device, and does not appear to have been nearly of such long continuance as the former. It has given place to the figure of Britannia, or that of a lion rampant supporting the cap of liberty on a pole. The name, however, has continued, and we still denominate paper of a particular size by the title of "foolscap." Post paper seems to have derived its name from the post-horn, which at one time was its distinguishing mark. It does not appear to have been used prior to the establishment of the general post-office, (1670,) when it became a custom to blow a horn; to which circumstance, no doubt, we may attribute its introduction. Bath post is so named after that fashionable city.—*Exchange.*

MISCELLANEA.

HON. ABRAM B. WEAVER has been re-elected, for a term of three years, Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of New York. By all parties his past administration has been pronounced "honest, impartial, and distinguished by commanding ability."

PROF. J. A. PRINDLE, who succeeded Dr. John W. Armstrong as Teacher of Natural Sciences in the Oswego State Normal School, has resigned, and the place has been filled by the appointment of Prof. Edwin A. Strong, a gentleman of ripe scholarship and superior abilities.

PROF. H. B. BUCKMAN, of Waterbury, Conn., has been appointed principal of the new State Normal School at Buffalo. The remainder of the faculty has not yet been chosen.

HON. W. JOHNSON has been re-appointed State Superintendent of Public Schools of Maine.

HON. M. B. HOPKINS succeeded Mr. B. C. Hobbs as State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Indiana, on the 15th of March.

REV. CHAS. K. BEECHER, of Massachusetts, has been appointed State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Florida.

AT a school exhibition in Sandusky Township, Ohio, the teacher gave permission to the spectators to ask questions, to test the proficiency of the scholars. Several availed themselves of the opportunity, and it chanced that a dispute arose between two of the men present, which they speedily attempted to settle by a free use of their pistols, greatly to the terror of the children and the spectators. Five or six shots were fired, and one of the men received a severe wound. Fortunately no one else was injured.

A TEACHER in Fall River, Mass., after hearing a complaint from one of her little scholars that one of the boys had pointed a pistol at her, asked all the boys who had pistols to come forward. Five boys promptly came to the desk with pistols in their pockets, capped and loaded.

THE people of Raymond, Miss., deny that there has been any quarrel with fatal results between white and colored school children there.

A PRIZE of ten dollars was recently offered to any member of the Georgia Teachers' Institute who would write and spell correctly the words in the following sentence: "It is an agreeable sight to witness the unparalleled embarrassment of a harnessed pedlar att empting to gauge the symmetry of a peeled onion, which a sibyl has stabbed with a poniard regardless of the innuendoes of the lilies of the cornelian hue." Thirty-eight teachers competed for the prize, but not one was successful.

A PROMINENT article in the *Galaxy* discusses the "Higher Education in America," contraverting the views of Professor Noah Porter on that subject. The writer, who presents many thoughtful and discriminating suggestions, maintains that though we like to call ourselves a practical people, in the matter of education we are singularly unpractical. No adequate provision is made for thorough training in the principal vocations of life. Neither our lawyers, writers, teachers, nor scientists find the preparation which they need. We are unpractical because we are not theoretical. We have not even made the attempt to realize a just theory of education. Outside of Germany, we shall look in vain for the full ideal of national education. As in all the essentials of life, so in education, Germany is the most practical nation in Europe, or in the world. No other nation can produce so many men perfectly trained for every emergency, whether the work be the marshaling of an army, the building of a railroad, the revision of a code of laws, or the publishing of a Sanscrit dictionary. In this country, the great need of education is a university, which shall concentrate and at the same time diffuse knowledge which shall suit all classes of mind and character, developing talent while it lays no fetters on genius.

A CELEBRATED professor, thinking to perplex an unfortunate pupil, one day put him the following question—"Pray, sir, can you tell me how long a man may live without brains?" To which the pupil, looking up in the face of the

interrogator, promptly but unexpectedly replied—" How old may you be yourself, Professor ?"

A CHAPLAIN was once preaching to a class of collegians about the formation of habits. " Gentlemen," said he, " close your ears against bad discourse." The students immediate ly clapped their hands to their ears.

Punch has the following: A capital answer—Self-made man, examining a school, of which he is manager—" Now, boy, what is the capital of 'Olland ?" Boy—" An H, sir."

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

PROF. JAMES JOHONNOT'S work entitled " SCHOOL HOUSES," is now in press, and will be published in a few weeks. Many of our readers are aware that Prof. Johonnot for a long time has been industriously preparing this book. Some years ago Prof. J. published a book on " School Architecture," which had a good demand. But the progress of the age has required another work, which we are happy to announce as nearly ready. The studies, experiences and opportunities of the author have amply prepared him to understand the deficiencies of our school-houses, and to devise wise remedies for the same.

In the country, both the plans and the construction of school-houses are committed to carpenters who have only a fair knowledge of ordinary building; and the designs for school-houses which are published have been mostly prepared by architects, who, whatever their qualifications in other respects, have had no special knowledge of school affairs. In consequence, the houses actually built, and those recommended, are too often ill adapted to their special uses. The plans of Prof. J.'s work have grown out of school experience, and while they are embodied in fine and appropriate architectural forms, in every case the architecture has been made subordinate to the use. An examination of the proof-sheets discloses

First. A complete exposition of the faults of school-houses as they are now constructed. These faults include, bad sites, improper surroundings, and imperfections in plans, materials, and workmanship.

Second. A thorough analysis of the needs of our schools and the kind of school-houses which these needs demand. The school-house should be made to accommodate the school, rather than the school to fit the school-house.

Third. Nearly fifty elaborate plans and elevations are given for the accommodation of almost every kind of county and village school. These plans give a large liberty of choice in these directions; THE SIZE varying from the accommodation of twenty to one hundred and fifty pupils; THE COST ranging from the minimum at which a respectable house can be built, to that of elaborate and ornamental structures; and THE STYLE varying to suit different conditions, situations and tastes.

Fourth. A description of school furniture suited to modern ideas of education. The principles which should be followed in constructing school furniture are first considered, and then elaborate plans and illustrations are given which embody these principles.

Fifth. A simple system of ventilation is described, which can be introduced at little cost, and which will furnish an unfailing supply of pure air. Directions are also given for the care of houses in which no ventilating apparatus has been provided.

Sixth. Plans are devised for the admission of light on scientific principles,—to avoid the arrangements which now so often result in defective eyesight. Other sanitary conditions are considered, and hints are given in regard to health.

Seventh. School apparatus receives due attention, and directions are given for securing and preserving valuable and inexpensive materials for showing the facts and for illustrating the principles of science.

Eighth. The arrangement of grounds and the construction and care of outbuildings receive attention. The gross and culpable neglect in this direction is set forth, and practical hints are given which cannot fail to interest teachers and school officers.

Ninth. The outlines of a practical and effective system of grading country schools are drawn. If carried into effect, this system will give to country places nearly all the advantages of classification, now enjoyed only in cities and villages.

Tenth. Hints concerning the conduct and management of schools, freely interspersed throughout the work, make it of special value to inexperienced teachers, as well as to school officers.

In short, this work makes a systematic effort to provide school-houses more in accordance with the present ideas of education and the spirit of the age, than those generally in use, and in making this advance to directly increase the usefulness and efficiency of the schools.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published "A Copious and Critical English-Latin Dictionary," by William Smith, LL.D., Editor of several Classical Dictionaries and other learned works, and Theophilus D. Hall, M. A., Fellow of University College, London. The work bears evidence of great ability, and care in its preparation. A useful index of proper names appears at the end of the volume. 964 pp. —"Motherless; or a Parisian Family," by the Author of "John Halifax, Gentleman." This book is translated from the French of Madame Guizot de Witt, for girls in their teens. It has several illustrations. 254 pages.—"The Mutineers of the Bounty" and their descendants in Pitcairn and Norfolk Islands. By Lady Belcher. It contains a map and several illustrations. 377 pages.—"Diary of the Besieged Resident in Paris," 131 pages, paper.—Of their "Library of Select Novels" we have two new volumes, 357 and 358: "Bred in the Bone," and "Fenton's Quest."

THE UNIVERSITY PUBLISHING CO. have published Holmes' First, Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Readers. They are prepared under the supervision of George F. Holmes, LL.D., of the University of Virginia. The volumes before us look well, and we hope that they are superior in every respect to many other Readers which are having a large sale. Ere long we shall endeavor to review them.

MESSRS. HURD & HOUGHTON have issued a handsome volume entitled "The Story of My Life," by Hans Christian Andersen, the author of Wonder Stories told for Children. This work is now first translated into English, and contains chapters additional to those published in the Danish Edition, bringing the narrative down to the Odense Festival of 1867. It contains an excellent portrait. 569 pages.

SAMUEL R. WELLS has done well in publishing a little volume on "The Human Feet," their dress and care, showing their natural, perfect shape and construction; their present deformed condition; and how flat feet, distorted toes, and other defects are to be prevented or corrected, with directions for dressing them elegantly, yet comfortably, and hints upon various matters relating to the whole subject, with illustrations. 12mo. 202 pp.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO. have recently issued "Lessons in Elementary Physics," by Balfour Stewart, LL.D., F. R. S., Professor of Natural Philosophy, Owens College, Manchester. The work shows intelligent, conscientious care in its preparation, and doubtless will prove a convenient little hand-book for the beginner. 380 pages, price $1.25. Also "Elementary Lessons in Logic; deductive and inductive," by W. Stanley Jevons, M. A., Professor of Logic in Owens College. This too is a neat little hand-book for the student, and doubtless it is large enough to teach all the Logic which should be attempted in our schools. It contains copious questions and examples, and a vocabulary of logical terms. 340 pages, price $1,25.

PROFESSOR GEORGE H. COOK, in his Annual Report as State Geologist of New Jersey, has given much valuable information concerning New Jersey, the Drained Lands of England and Holland, the Swedish, German and English Iron Mines, and the condition of agriculture in the several countries which he visited last year.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE AND ARTS for April contains several excellent scientific papers, and its usual well-selected Scientific Intelligence.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.—The Publishing Committee of the National Educa-

tional Convention have made preparation for the publication of the proceedings of the meeting held in Cleveland in August last. The volume will contain the papers presented before the convention, and full stenographic reports of the discussions following the same. Among the papers are the addresses of Presidents John Ogden, of the Normal Association, and D. B. Hagar, of the Teachers' Association; report of Dr. J. W. Hoyt, Chairman of Committee on National University; report of Prof. W. F. Phelps, on *Course of Study for Normal Schools;* paper of Eben Tourjeé, entitled *A Plea for Vocal Music in Public Schools;* paper of Sup't. E. A. Sheldon, on *Primary Instruction;* paper of Miss Delia A. Lathrop on *The Place and Value of Object Lessons;* paper of Sup't. W. T. Harris, on *Text-Books;* and of Prof. J. H. Blodgett, on *Grammar in Common Schools.* The full reports of the discussions following these papers will give to this volume a value not possessed by any previous reports of the Association. It will also contain the addresses of Hon. F. A. Sawyer, U. S. Senator from South Carolina, on *Free Common Schools—What they can do for a State;* of Gen. Eaton, National Commissioner of Education, on *The Relation of the National Government to Public Education;* and of Sup't. J. L. Pickard, of Chicago, on *Physical Culture.* Those not members of the Convention can be supplied with copies at $1.00 each, by forwarding the money to S. H. White, Chairman of Committee on Publication, Peoria, Illinois.

AT a club, of which Jerrold was a member, a fierce Jacobite, and a friend, as fierce, of the cause of William the Third, were arguing noisily, and disturbing less excitable conversationalists. At length the Jacobite, a brawny Scot, brought his fist down heavily upon the table, and roared at his adversary. "I tell you what it is, sir, I spit upon your King William." The friend of the Prince of Orange was not to be outmastered by mere lungs. He rose and roared back to the Jacobite: "And I, sir, spit upon your James the Second!" Jerrold, who had been listening to the uproar in silence, hereupon rang the bell, and shouted: "Waiter, *spittoons for two!*"

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW YORK.—The NEW YORK STATE ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS will hold their Annual Convention at Utica, May 9th. We have seen no programme. THE NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION will meet at Lockport, 25th July.

THE SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for this State, recently submitted to the Legislature, by Hon. Abram B. Weaver, is like his preceding reports—an able and business-like document, giving a clear and complete statement of the present condition of education, with the progress and results of the past year. Its publication in the usual book-form for distribution will be awaited with interest by the friends of public education.

It is not crowded with superfluous matter—abstract treatises on educational topics, original and selected; but it presents facts, and discusses questions of direct importance to the educational policy and work of the State.

In another place we have printed in full, Mr. Weaver's interesting discussion on "Compulsory Attendance at School." This is a live subject, much considered of late. Legislative action has been sought by the friends of the measure. The arguments are strong and convincing, and are ably supported by facts and statistics. The source from which the article emanates will command for it wide and respectful consideration. We have space to give only a few of the more important statistics:

SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND SCHOOL HOUSES.—There has been a slight decrease in the number of school districts during the past school year. Eleven Union school districts have been founded under the general school act, by the consolidation of twenty-three common school districts. The number of school-houses is 11,695, of which 127 are log; 9904, frame; 1,162, brick; 502, stone. More than one-half of the log school-houses of 1860, and nearly 16 per cent. of those of 1869, have disappeared. The reported value of school-houses and sites, for 1870, is $20,426,412—an increase of nearly $2,000,000 since 1869, and of 4,000,000 since 1868.

CHILDREN AND ATTENDANCE.—The number of children

between five and twenty-one years of age, is 1,480,761. Of this number 1,026,447 attended public schools. The average number in attendance in 1870, was 64,748 more than in 1867, the last year of the rate bill system, although the average school term was more than two weeks longer.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.—The amount expended for teachers' salaries in 1870, was $6,496,692.39, being an average annual salary of $372.58, or $10.58 per week of the average school term. In five years, the gross amount annually paid for teachers' wages has advanced nearly fifty per cent. or $2,000,000 more than was paid in 1866. The increase in one year is $404,511.80.

SCHOOL EXPENSES.—The amount expended in maintaining the common schools during the year, was $9,905,514.22. The entire amount expended during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1870, for educational purposes, including appropriations for Normal and Academic schools, Indian schools, teachers' institutes, supervision, etc., was $10,289,349.72.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.—Six of the nine normal schools provided for are in successful operation. The expense of their maintenance, the past year, was $128,723.59. The aggregate attendance of normal students, was 1,921.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.—During the year, institutes were held in fifty-six counties, with an attendance of 10,397 teachers, an attendance exceeding that of any former year, being 80.8 per cent. of the entire number of teachers employed for the legal term in the counties where institutes were held.

MAINE.—The Seventeenth Annual Report of the State Superintendent is at hand. We gather from it the following statistics: Whole number of pupils between four and twenty-one, 228,167; number registered in summer schools, 121,125; average attendance, 94,429: number registered in winter schools, 132,867; average attendance, 106,602; number in winter schools not attending summer schools, 20,086; per centage of average attendance to whole number, .50; average length of schools for the year, 19 weeks 4 days; number of districts, 4,004, of which 230 have graded schools; estimated value of all school property, $2,433,426; aggregate amount expended for schools, $1,077,927; amount of

school fund, $293,576; average wages of teachers per month, male $32.27, female $14.00. Maine stands lowest on the list in wages paid to teachers. It is worthy of notice, that while the total population of the State has increased 440 in ten years, the school population has decreased 15,753. Maine has established two Normal schools. They are not endowed, but depend on the annual bounties of the State Legislature for their support. Much space is devoted to the discussion of the following topics: Common School Systems; Normal Schools; Teachers' Institutes; Compulsory Attendance; Town High Schools, etc. On the whole, Mr. Johnson's Report shows some progress during 1870, but, it is evident, that there is still room for improvement.

INDIANA.—The Fifth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, gives the following statistics: Whole number of white children between six and twenty-one years of age, 612,090, colored, 7,537, total, 619,627; number of school districts, 8,861, in 8,759 of which schools were taught during the year: pupils attending primary schools, 450,282; high schools, 12,245; average attendance in primary schools, 281,912; in high schools, 9,177; average length of schools in days, 97; number of teachers employed, male, 7,104, female, 4,722; average monthly compensation of teachers in primary schools, male, $37.00, female, $28.00; amount expended for tuition, $1,810,866.53; total value of school property, $7,282,639.30; number of volumes in township libraries, 276,799, of which 99,170 were taken out for use.

GEORGIA.—The Fifth Annual Meeting of the Georgia State Teachers' Association is to be held in Columbus, May 2d, 3d, and 4th. The President is J. M. Bonnell, D. D.; Secretary, B. Mallon, Esq. The programme seems comprehensive and well arranged, calling for a large number of papers from many prominent educators in the South. The topics are well chosen, and we expect to hear favorable reports from the meeting.

JACKSONVILLE, ILL.—The number of children between six and twenty-one years of age, is 2,836; number registered in schools, 1,682; number of teachers employed, 32; amount paid teachers, $20,100; average cost

per pupil, $11.95; total expenses of schools, $39,194.49; estimated value of school property, $135,100.

KANSAS CITY, MO.—The extent of the work done during the year 1870, is partially indicated by the following figures taken from the Report of Superintendent John R. Phillips: enumeration of youth, 3,780; number of schools, 10; school-houses, 10; number of seats, 2,060; number of teachers, 35; number of pupils taught, 3,095; average number of pupils belonging, 1,708; average daily attendance, 1,417; average cost per pupil for tuition upon number belonging, $9.67; upon average daily attendance, $11.65; total expenditures for support of schools, $74,788, of which $34,708.47 were for building school-houses.

SWEDEN.—The Government, through "the People's Schools," the elementary schools, and the universities, cares very well for the education of the boys; but the girls are not so well provided for. With the exception of the people's schools, which are intended for the lower classes, to which both sexes are admitted, there are no public schools for the education of girls generally. Some years ago the Government instituted three seminaries, two in Stockholm, and one in the diocesan town of Skara, for the gratuitous education of girls who have attained the age of seventeen, and who purpose earning their bread by tuition in schools or families. The course of instruction occupies three years, and is on a most rational and useful system. The women among the peasantry are not as a rule, ignorant, but there is evidence that education has not had a refining influence upon their domestic habits. Actual want does not exist among them, so that it cannot be offered as a palliation of their dirty habits; and, even among the positively well-off peasantry, the whole family, all ages and both sexes, sleep in one room, huddled together like pigs. They have a general aversion to fresh air, never willingly admitting it, either in summer or winter, and keeping their windows nailed down. At night they merely remove their outer garments, and never wash themselves, in even the most superficial way, more than once a week. The well-to-do peasants grow their own flax, and the women weave their household linen, and some over, which they sell.

HARTFORD PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

WITHIN the memory of all who have passed the meridian of life, almost anything having four sides and a roof, no matter how leaky, was considered good enough for a school-house. If not absolutely built of logs, the edifice wherein our youthful tastes for sport and mischief were subject to restriction, was, at best, unsightly and in every way poorly adapted to its ostensible purpose. How we alternated between shivering and melting, with the changing seasons! Nowhere is progress more strongly marked, than in the popular appreciation of what is due to that grand exponent of civilization—the public school. The land is dotted with practical results in the shape of imposing buildings, combining in their structure the latest results of architectural and scientific experience.

Without designing invidious comparison, we will give a brief description of an Institution presenting many features worthy of commendation.

In 1839, the late Rev. George Burgess, D.D., afterward Bishop of Maine, prepared a plan for the improvement of the common schools of Hartford, Conn. Though warmly approved by the friends of educational advancement, the project languished until 1847, when a substantial building was erected for the joint accommodation of the High and Grammar schools. For twenty years this served a tolerable purpose, but the increase of population and progress of intelligence demanded larger and better quarters. Public spirit responded, and 1869 witnessed the completion of a building of which Hartford may justly be proud. It was dedicated with appropriate exercises, Jan. 4th, 1870. The building is situated upon an eminence near the public Park, surrounded by extensive and beautiful grounds, and commands a fine view of the city and adjacent country. The dimensions of the building are 100 by 85 feet, of mixed architecture, the Normal style predominating; with raised basement and Mansard roof, making practically four stories. The materials are brick, Portland freestone and Ohio sandstone. Without attempting a minute description of the

building, we would simply say that the latest mode of construction, arrangement of interior, facilities for egress, appliances for light, warmth and ventilation, security against fire and general adaptation to its object, have been secured through the intelligent application of all that experience could suggest, and science devise.

We cannot, however, refrain from particular reference to the admirable arrangements for ventilation, constructed under the direction of Lewis W. Leeds, of New York. In the south tower is a ventilating shaft eight feet square, lined with corrugated iron, reaching from basement to roof. Leading into this are ventiducts three by eight feet, one on each floor, with one of which each room is connected by several flues, ten by twelve inches in size. Under each school-room are six or more of these flues, and twenty-four under the main hall. Swivel blinds over all the doors permit free circulation of air through the corridors and up the stairs to the assembly-room—thence by large ventilators leading to one large ejector at the apex of the roof.

The entire building is heated by steam, furnished by four tubular boilers connecting with thirty-two stacks of radiators, so made that the external surface is thrice the internal; thus lowering the temperature of the passing air to a point which leaves its vitality and moisture unimpaired. The temperature of the radiators is about 160° Farenheit, instead of 800° to 1000°, as with common hot air furnaces. These appliances for securing a healthful temperature, combined with thorough ventilation, merit the highest commendation and deserve investigation and imitation.

The entire cost of building and grounds was $159,247.50; the lot, including grading and fences, costing $39,871.28; the building, $101,778.75; the furniture and apparatus, $10,503.31; the heating apparatus, $7,094.16.

The institution is under the able direction of Prof. Samuel M. Capron, A.M. Each department of study is entrusted to teachers eminently qualified in their specialties. The course of study is comprehensive, and the fault must lie with the student if the most finished result of academic labor is not attained here. L. S.

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Providence, R. I., Feb. 8th, 1856.

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There are several serious objections to the *usual* method of making Charts and Maps on paper, and then mounting them on cloth and rollers; which, when possible, it is desirable to avoid:—

1st. As already stated, it is next to impossible to print a large, clean black ground, and so give the diagram in white or light colored lines, which are the most desirable.

2d. Cloth and paper, pasted together, do not work well; as in *damp* weather the *cloth shrinks* and the *paper swells*, and vice versa in *dry* weather, which draws the Chart out of a true plane and renders the surface wavy, and prevents it from hanging flat on the wall.

3d. The tape-binding, sewed or pasted, on the edges, and the sticks nailed on, at top and bottom, render the Chart clumsy and awkward to handle, as well as liable to need repairs.

4th. The cloth and paper, and the paste between them, make the Chart so stiff, that if it be rolled up in *damp* weather and unrolled in *dry* weather, it is impossible to make it hang flat on the wall.

5th. The varnish employed to improve and protect the surface soon cracks and crumbles off.

6th. They soon show age, and appear dingy and uninviting.

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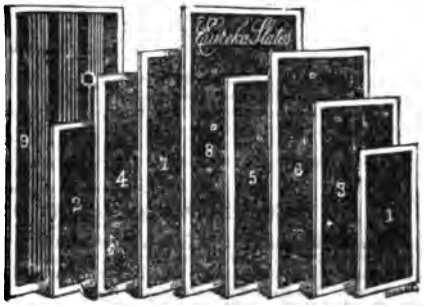

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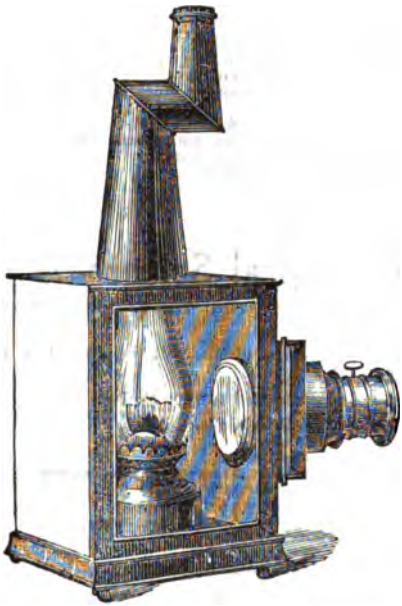

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June, 1871.

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98—Paris and Moscow; 8; *French*, *Russian*, *Italian* and *German*; C.; $800 and Home.
99—Paris; 11; *French*; E.; $400 and home.
100—Geneva; 3; *French*, *German*, Piano and Singing.
101—France; 5; *French* and El. Piano; Prot.; $500 and home.

Ladies—Drawing, Painting, etc.

155—Ed. Lassell Sem.; 2; Drawing, Painting, Eng. and Maths.; M.; $350 and home.
156—Ed. Coll., N. C.; 2; Drawing, Painting, Waxwork and Embroidery; M.; $300 and Home.
157—Ed. Fort Edward; 6; Drawing and Painting; P.; $250 and home.
158—Gen. W. Sem. and Cooper Inst.; 7; Drawing and Painting; M.
159—Hudson Acad.; 15; Drawing, Painting, Piano, Organ, Melodeon and Thorough Base; $400 and home.

Gentlemen—English, Maths., Classics, French, German, Military Tactics, &c.

700—Yale; 19; Eng., Class., Maths.; $1200.
701—Pa. State Nor. Sch.; 9; Eng., Maths., B'k-keep., Class., German, Singing, Drawing; Ref.; $500 and Home.
702—Tufts; 2; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., French; U.; $600.

703—Brown; 6; Eng., Maths., Class., German, French; B.: $1500.
704—Wesleyan Univ.; 13; Eng., Class., Maths., Singing; P.: $1500.
705—Acad.; 3; Eng., Maths., Class.; P.: $500 and Home.
706—Wesleyan Univ.; 20; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep., *German*, French; M.: $1500.
707—Williams; 13; Eng., Class., B'k-keep., Maths., *French*, German, Spanish; Cl.: $2000.
708—Yale; 6; Eng, Class., Maths., German; Cl.: $2500.
709—Pa. State Nor. Sch.; 3; Eng., Maths., Latin, *German*, B'k-keep., Drawing, Singing; $1200.
710—Dartmouth; 6; Eng., Maths., Class., Nat. Sci.; B.: $1500.
711—Cornell Univ.; Eng., Maths., Latin, French, German; P.: $1000.
712—Allegheny; 14; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep.; M.: $2000.
713—Univ. of Glasgow; 15; Eng., Class., Maths., German, French, Italian, B'k-keep.; P.: $1200.
714—Ireland; 6; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep., Penmanship; E., $800.
715—Coll. City of N. Y.; 1; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keep.; P.: $800.
716—Westfield Nor. Sch.; 2; Eng., Maths., Latin, Nat. Sci., Gym.; Cl.: $900.
717—Academic; 6; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keep., Drawing; Cl.: $1500.
718—White Plains Acad.; 16; Eng., Maths., B'k-keep.; M.: $1200.
719—Dartmouth; 1; Eng., Maths., Class., Gymnastics, Singing, B'k-keep.: $1200.
720—Amherst; 3; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Class., B'k-keep.; Cl.: $1500.
721—Cambridge, Eng.; 7; Eng., Class., Maths., French, German, Drawing; E., $600.
722—Acad.; English branches, B'k-keep.; Cl.: $500.
723—Brown Univ.; 11; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep., French, German, Drawing, Singing, Piano, Gym.; Cl.; $1800.
724—Bethany; 8; Eng., Maths., Class., French; Spanish: $1000 and Home.
725—Pub. Sch.; 10; Eng., Maths., B'k-keep.: $1500.
726—Acad.; 8; Eng., Maths., Mil. Tactics, *French*, *Spanish*, Gym.; $1800.
727—Brown Univ.; 3; Eng., Class., *German*, *French*, Maths., B'k-keep., Gym.; B.; $1500.
728—Centre; 5; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., B'k-keep., Class.; P.: $1800.
729—Ed. Rochester Univ.; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., Nat. Sci., Singing; P.: $1200.
730—Lafayette; 5; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep., Piano, Organ, Guitar, Singing, French, German, Gym.; P.: $1500.
731—Cornell; Eng., Class., Maths., Mil. Tactics, B'k-keep.; Cl.: $1000.
732—Acad; 9; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keep., Gym; Friends: $1500.
733—Williams; 3; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keep., Gym.; P.: $1000.
734—Acad.; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keep.; Friends: $400 and Home.
735—Amherst; 5; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep.; French; P.: $1000.
736—Acad.; 5; English branches; $600.
737—Williams; 1; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Class., Sings.; P.: $1200.
738—Ed. Lafayette; 2; Eng., Maths. B'k-keep., Class.; P.: $900.
739—Columbia; 8; Eng., Class., Maths., French, German; E.; $1500.
740—Yale; 6; Eng., Maths., Class., French; P.: $1500.
741—Farmers; 25; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Class., B'k-keep., Drawing, Penmanship; Cl.: $1,500.
742—Acad.; 10; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep, M.: $1,200.
743—Genesee; 3; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Latin, French, German; M.: $1,200.
744—Acad.; 14; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keeping, Gym.: $1,500.
745—Lafayette; 2; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keeping, German; P.: $1,000.
746—Lafayette; 1; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping, P.: $1,000.
747—Ed. England; 5: Eng., Maths., El. Class, Singing, French, *Portuguese*, Drawing; E.: $1,000.
748—Ed. Amherst; 2; Eng., Maths., Class., Sings; U.: $800.
749—Acad.; 7; Eng., Maths., *French*, Drawing: $1,500.
750—Dartmouth; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., Drawing; Cl.: $1,000.
751—Ed. England; 22; English branches, Drawing, French; E.: $750.
752—Yale; 9; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping; P.: $1,200.
753—Cornell; 1; Natural Sciences, *Portuguese*; E.: $900.
754—Jefferson; 7; Eng., Maths., Class.; P.: $1,200.
755—Acad.; 6; English branches: $900.
756—Union; 12; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep., German; Cl.: $1,200.
757—Harvard; 4; Eng., Class., Maths., German; U.: $1,200.
758—Middlebury; 5; Eng., Class., Maths.; Cl.: $800 and home.
759—Wesleyan Univ.; 3; Eng., Maths., Class., French, German; Cl.: $900.
760—Wesleyan Univ. and Heidelberg; 3; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., *German*, *French*; M.: $1,500.
761—Rome and France; 3; Eng., Maths., Class., *Italian*, *French*; C.; $800.
762—Harvard; 1; Eng., Maths., Class., German, French; Friends: $600.
763—Dickinson; 1; Eng.; Class., Maths., *German*, French, Singing; M.: $1,000.
764—Amherst; 1; Eng., Class., Maths., Gym.; P.: $1,000.
765—Victoria Univ.; 1; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep., French; M.: $700.
766—Nor. Sch.., Albany; 3; Eng. Nat. Sci., B'k-keep.; P.: $1,000.
767—Cornell; 1; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keep., *German*: $1,000.
768—Washington; 20; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep.; P.
769—Union; 10; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep.; P.: $1,500.
770—Med. Coll.; 2; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Latin; P.: $600.

Foreign Gentlemen—Also American Gentlemen who Teach Music.

326—Leipsic; 5; Piano, Organ, Singing, *German*, *French*; E.: $1,800.
327—Boston; 12; Piano, Singing, Organ; M.: $1,800.
328—Mus. Sem.; 8; Piano, Organ, Singing, Brass Instruments; M.: $1,000.
329—Berlin and Zurich; 3; Nat. Sci., *German*, *French*, *Polish*, Piano, Organ, Singing, Class., Maths.; C.
330—Leipsic; 3; Piano, Organ, Singing; L.
331—Cassel; 5; Piano, Organ, Singing, *German*; L.
332—Paris; 12; *French*, *Spanish*, *Italian*, *Portuguese*; U.
333—Brown Univ.; 15; Singing, Piano, Organ, Guitar; E.: $2,000.
334—So. Kensington Sch. of Art; 15; Drawing and Painting; E.: $800.
335—Paris; 4; *French*, Maths., Engineering, Drawing: $1,000.
336—Ed. Coll., City N. Y.; *German*, *French*, *Spanish*, *Italian*; L.: $1,000.
337—Paris; 2; *French*, Maths.
338—Piano, Organ, Singing; E.: $500.
339—Germany; 10; *German*, *French*, *Portuguese*, Spanish, Italian, Maths., Latin; L.: $1,000.
340—Munich; 10; Maths., *German*, Drawing, Painting, B'k-keeping, Music; E.: $1,200.
341—Dresden; 6; *German*, *French*, Maths., Latin, Nat. Sci., Piano, Singing: $1,000.
342—Milan; 20; Piano, Organ, Singing, *Italian*, *Spanish*, *French*; E.: $2,000.
343—Upsal; 5; *French*, *German*, Italian, Maths., Mil. Tactics, Gym.: $1,000.
344—Göttingen; 2; *German*, *French*, Class., Math., Piano, Singing; L.: $800.
345—Breslau; 11; Singing, Piano, Organ, *German*, Gym.: $1,500.
346—Paris; 15; Piano, Organ, Singing, *French*; C.
347—Munich; 20; Piano, Violin, Organ, Singing, Guitar, *German*; E.

School Properties for Sale, Rent, or Exchange.

The AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is read by most of the Principals and School Proprietors in the country, hence we have unparalleled facilities for learning of persons who desire to *buy, sell, or exchange* School Property. By this plan Schools may be offered without exposure to the embarrassment of *open announcements.*

Terms.—Five per cent. commission upon the amount, due as soon as transfer of property is made. No sale undertaken without preliminary fee of five dollars (for advertisement and correspondence). This may be deducted from final commission. For *renting* School Properties same as for sales; Commission being on rent for one year.

Particulars of Properties given to subscribers of the *Am. Educational Monthly*, or to others on subscribing, $2 00 per annum. Address with stamp,

J. W. Schermerhorn, 14 Bond St., New York.

68.—For Sale.—A valuable SCHOOL PROPERTY in Eastern Penn. Building is stone cottage, 4 stories, with finished attic; and is specially adapted for both sexes. Accommodations for 60 boarding pupils. The campus, containing seven acres, with fruit and ornamental trees. School is in flourishing condition. Reasons for selling given on application. Price $16,000.

70.—For Sale.—The proprietor of a remunerative Boarding and Day School in Massachusetts, desiring to change his occupation, will sell the property on favorable terms. At present rate of income, it will pay for itself in five years. To a competent teacher and manager, this offers unusual inducements. Price $13,700 for Real Estate. Personal property to be sold cheap.

75.—College Property for Sale or Lease.—It consists of 3½ acres of ground, on which is a large and handsome main building, containing lecture room, 12 recitation rooms, and chapel elegantly finished in black walnut. There are two other buildings, having 48 rooms for students, besides dining hall, kitchen, etc. The College is beautifully located within the limits of a city (State of Ohio) of 35,000 inhabitants, which needs an academic institution of high grade. The entire property, will be sold for $20,000, which is about half the cost of improvements. If not sold soon, will be leased at $1,200 a year.

77.—For Rent—Near Philadelphia, a House suitable for a first-class BOARDING SCHOOL. It contains 30 rooms; is built in best manner; excellent water; beautiful walks in vicinity. From 4 to 18 acres of land may be had with it. Rent very moderate.

78.—For Sale—BOARDING AND DAY SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LADIES, in a rapidly growing city, two hours from N. Y. Main building 45 X 50, wing 22 x 25—three stories and basement, in good order. Price, including buildings, grounds, school furniture, two pianos, and good-will of school, $28,000. The buildings are insured for $12,400.

79.—For Sale—BOARDING and DAY SCHOOL for YOUNG LADIES, near Philadelphia. Railroad within three minutes' walk. Lot 101 by 235 feet; location high and healthy; shaded play-ground and garden. Buildings in good repair. Present proprietor wishes to retire from business. Price $15,000; $5,000 cash. A good School is much needed.

80.—For Sale—BOARDING SCHOOL FOR BOYS, which has been in successful operation for 20 years. The property is 18 miles from Philadelphia, and is located in a beautiful country. It is offered for $20,000. Buildings are in excellent condition; house is lighted with gas; accommodations for over 30 boarders.

83.—For Sale.—Boarding and Day School for Boys in Connecticut, 4 hours from New York. In operation 12 years. Offered because of Principal's death. Buildings, in first-rate order, will accommodate 25 boarders and as many day-scholars. Ten acres of land, finely situated. Price, $10,000.

84.—For Sale.—Boarding and Day School for Boys, one hour from Baltimore. School-room will seat 80; boarding accommodations for 40. House may be filled during vacation with summer boarders. Four acres of land. Price, $6,500. Personal property for sale cheap. Terms easy.

86.—For Sale—BOARDING AND DAY SCHOOL for Boys, pleasantly located on the Hudson. Has been in successful operation for many years, and is well and favorably known. The building will accommodate over 50 boarding pupils. There are about five acres of land, a spacious gymnasium, and all necessary out-houses. Will be sold on very easy terms. Reason for selling and other information given on application.

87.—For Sale—Half interest in the furniture and good-will of a well-established DAY SCHOOL for Boys, located in Brooklyn, N. Y., and now in successful operation. Price $1,500.

88.—For Sale—A well-known BUSINESS COLLEGE in Conn., which has been extensively advertised, and is in a flourishing condition. An excellent chance is here offered to an active manager, as this is the most prominent Institution of the kind in New England. Price $3,000, one-half cash.

89.—For Sale—A FAMILY SCHOOL FOR BOYS, on the Hudson. Accommodations for about 20 boarders. Price for furniture and good-will, $2,000 cash.

91.—For Sale—A well-known CLASSICAL NORMAL AND COMMERCIAL ACADEMY, located in a city of 25,000 inhabitants. To a teacher of experience and ability, an unusually good opportunity is here offered. $1,500, cash, needed.

92.—For Sale—Flourishing DAY-SCHOOL for Boys in N. J. All necessary furniture and apparatus. Good opportunity for establishing a Boarding-school. Price, $600, which includes rent of spacious school room for one year. Presbyterian preferred.

93—For Sale—DAY-SCHOOL for Boys in the upper part of N. Y. City. Rent of rooms $50 a month. Price for good-will, etc., $350.

94—For Sale—One of the largest and most favorably known DAY SCHOOLS for Boys in N. Y. City. Established nearly 30 years. Location very desirable. Price for good-will, furniture, etc., $8,000. Terms easy. Full information on application.

95—For Sale—Flourishing DAY-SCHOOL for young ladies in a growing city near New York. Furniture, apparatus, etc., complete and of good quality. Price, $500. Terms very easy. An unusual opportunity!

96.—For Sale.—FEMALE SEMINARY, two and a half hours from N. Y. or Philadelphia. Location very desirable. Three acres of land; house three stories, with finished attic. Will accommodate thirty-five (or more) boarding pupils. Main building, 34x35 feet; wing, 50x19. Porch and veranda. Large and well ventilated. School-room, music, recitation, and reading rooms, parlors, bath-room, etc., etc. Net income, $3,800.

ANNOUNCEMENT.

DR. F. G. JOHNSON'S

Indestructible School Charts.

(Alphabet Series now ready, and Philosophical Series nearly ready.)

The method of making these Charts is entirely new. There is neither paper, ink, printing press, tape, rollers, nor varnish employed in their manufacture; being printed by hand in pure white lines, with imperishable oil colors, on enameled jet black cloth.

The inventor of these Charts prepared a series of *ten* Philosophical Charts, 3 feet by 4 feet, in 1856, embracing about 200 diagrams, a large edition of which was rapidly sold,—the engravings being destroyed by fire, no subsequent editions were made.

To further show the purpose of these Charts and the favor with which they were received, at the time of their publication, we give the opinion of a few of the most distinguished men of the age:

From Benjamin Silliman, LL.D., Prof. Emeritus in Yale College.

DR. JOHNSON'S Philosophical Charts are well worthy of the attention of all teachers and learners of the different branches of Natural Philosophy, to which they relate.

The diagrams drawn in colored or contrasted lines, upon a black ground, are perfectly distinct and intelligible, and the large size and handsome mounting of the Charts give them a striking and attractive appearance.

To teachers without apparatus, they must be an invaluable acquisition, and a very useful one to those who *have* the instruments.

Such illustrations, as they speak to the mind through the eye, admit of indefinite extension to every branch of Natural Science.

BENJ. SILLIMAN.

From Rev. Francis Wayland, D.D., LL.D., formerly Prest. of Brown University.

I have carefully examined DR. JOHNSON'S Philosophical Charts, and think them well adapted to the purpose for which they are intended. They will afford important aid to instructors in academies and schools where Philosophical instruments are not furnished to perform illustrative experiments. In many cases they will also be of service even in addition to any ordinary apparatus.

FRANCIS WAYLAND.
Providence, R. I., Feb. 8th, 1856.

From the Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen, Pres. Rutgers College, New Jersey, formerly Chancellor of New York University.

DR. JOHNSON'S "Philosophical Charts," designed for the use of Schools and Academies, furnish an admirable substitute for the far more expensive apparatus. These Charts, hung on the walls of the school-room—in all of which I hope to see them—will spread before the scholar a palpable illustration of the great laws in Natural Philosophy. He will learn much of God, from the works of His hand and the ordinances of His appointment.

The small volume that accompanies them, and a little explanation from the teacher, will render the Charts one of the most useful means of instruction.

THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN.

From the Hon. Horace Mann, President Antioch College, Ohio, formerly Secretary Board of Education of Mass.

* * * * * * * In schools where there is not the philosophical apparatus, these beautiful "Charts" will be an excellent substitute for it; and I shall be glad to show and to commend them to such persons as can best introduce them into schools, and especially to such as shall go forth from our institution to become school teachers.

HORACE MANN.

These Charts were made on paper and mounted on cloth and rollers, in the usual manner. To render the diagrams conspicuous, they were executed in white lines, by printing the back-ground black. The difficulty of printing a clean and pure black, on so large a surface, made it impossible to execute them with desirable neatness and perfection; while, at the same time, it is admitted that *white figures* and *black ground* make the most satisfactory Charts, rendering them more conspicuous and yet easier for the eye.

There are several serious objections to the *usual* method of making Charts and Maps on paper, and then mounting them on cloth and rollers; which, when possible, it is desirable to avoid:—

1st. As already stated, it is next to impossible to print a large, clean black ground, and so give the diagram in white or light colored lines, which are the most desirable.

2d. Cloth and paper pasted together, do not work well; as in *damp* weather the *cloth shrinks* and the *paper swells*, and vice versa in *dry* weather, which draws the Chart out of a true plane and renders the surface wavy, and prevents it from hanging flat on the wall.

3d. The tape-binding, sewed or pasted, on the edges, and the sticks nailed on, at top and bottom, render the Chart clumsy and awkward to handle, as well as liable to need repairs.

4th. The cloth and paper, and the paste between them, make the Chart so stiff, that if it be rolled up in *damp* weather and uncovered in *dry* weather, it is impossible to make it hang flat on the wall.

5th. The varnish employed to improve and protect the surface soon cracks and crumbles off.

6th. They soon show age, and appear dingy and uninviting.

7th. The paste employed in mounting often tempts the rats and mice to test what virtue there is in schooling for *them*, to the entire destruction of the Charts on the first investigation.

8th. Charts thus made are not sufficiently durable for school purposes.

To obviate all these objections, Dr. JOHNSON has invented and adopted a method of producing what he styles "*Indestructible School Charts*," as above described. The mounting consists of a flattish oval stick run into a hem at top and bottom, thus avoiding paste, binding, nails, and clumsy rollers.

Each Chart is surrounded with a highly-colored border, giving it a remarkably neat and lively appearance. *These Charts are as smooth as glass and soft and pliable as silk, and hang perfectly flat on the wall.* They are as durable as a stone school-house—they could be employed as table-covers, and scrubbed with soap and water for years, and then be hung up for Charts and appear as fresh as new. The back-ground is a jet-black, and far superior to any ink-printing—though black and white are not the only colors that may be employed, for any desirable color can be used for either back-ground or diagrams.

Dr. JOHNSON has in course of preparation, to be published by us, Charts on various subjects, to be made by this method.

At present we have ready, and offer for sale, the *Alphabet Series*, consisting of two Charts, each 3 ft. by 2 ft., in white, on black ground, surrounded with a white and vermilion border, and mounted as above described—No. 1 containing the Capital Letters and Arabic Figures; No. 2 containing Small Letters, Points, and Roman Numerals. Also completed and ready for delivery, the first Six of a Series of Ten Charts, 56 by 32 inches, on Natural Philosophy, carefully drawn and standing out in bold white lines, on a jet-black surface (in other colors, if desired). This series is intended to much more than supply the place of the series above alluded to, embracing, instead of about 200 diagrams, about **600** on the various subjects of Natural Philosophy, as taught in Schools, being the *most complete, most durable and cheapest substitute for the Philosophical Apparatus ever published.*

Any person desiring the complete Set, can have the Six now completed, and be supplied with each of the remaining numbers when ready. The entire Series will be ready in July. The Set will be accompanied with a Key of explanation.

No School need be without Philosophical Charts, to take the place of the enormously expensive and frail apparatus, when they can be had in bright and imperishable oil colors, at the rate of *two and a half* cents a diagram.

J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., *Publishers,*

14 Bond St., New York.

AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

JUNE, 1871.

NOTES ON THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING.

EDUCATION AND EDUCATORS.—Mere knowledge is not education, but the latter includes the former. To teach is not to educate, but to educate is to teach. The two terms are far from being synonymous. To *teach* means "to cram in," and to *educate* means "to draw out" or to lead forth. The term education is derived from *a* or *ex* (out) and *duco* (to lead,) and in the sense in which we use it signifies the expanding, unfolding, training, and strengthening of all the human powers. True education excites the mind to thirst after knowledge, whilst it endows our faculties with strength to acquire sufficient supplies of mental food. Being, at the same time, a cause and an effect, it strengthens and enlarges the intellectual capacities, whilst it cultivates, elevates, and refines all the feelings of the human heart. The best Educator is not the man who can "cram in" the most information, but he who can most successfully stir up or inspire the human mind to think, observe, reflect, combine, analyze, and execute without doing any of these things for it—he who can thoroughly discipline the mental faculties and thereby enable his pupils to educate themselves.

A Perfect Man.—Man was designed by the Creator to be "perfect after his kind;" and this truth has reference to his

physical, mental, and moral natures. It does not refer to one only, but to the three together:—to the body, the mind, and the heart. That being alone is "a perfect man" who posesses a benevolent heart, a vigorous mind, and a healthy body. Education implies cultivation in these three departments, and not in one only as many people imagine. Nature and experience inform us that the moral, physical, and intellectual powers should be cultivated and developed in unison, otherwise the education will be defective. The teacher who would attempt to cultivate one of these to the exclusion of the others, would have but very incorrect ideas of his work and of the success which should attend a certain amount of labor.

First Principle of Education.—As regards the order of sequence, we would be inclined to affirm that the first and grandest principle of all good sound education is that *more attention should be paid to the formation of character* than to mere expertness in the literary branches of learning; and the second is like unto it—namely, that far more emphasis should be laid on *the right cultivation of the feelings of the heart* and development of the mental faculties, than on the mere acquisition of knowlege. Every act of the teacher (as a teacher,) should have a tendency to stir up, strengthen, and develop these feelings and faculties; and the judicious use by him of all available means for that purpose, is not only legal and right, but obligatory. Having this object in view, the teacher's first effort must be to win his pupil's love. Should he thoroughly understand his work and be a good judge of human nature, he will have no difficulty in doing this, otherwise time and continued effort will be necessary.

Characteristics.—Good rules and regulations, and the due observance of commendable habits and customs have more to do with the success of a school than many people ever suspect. Punctuality is one of the most essential and important habits of a school. Every teacher should, in his own person, be a bright example of this virtue, and never should he fail to insist on its observance by his pupils. Children, at home and abroad, should be encouraged to love their own particular schools, and to revere their own particular teachers, preferring them to all others. Want of zeal in maintaining

the honor of the school is a sure sign that the pupil does not stand very high in his classes, and that he is deficient in laudable ambition. Every pupil in a school should be ambitious of adding to its glory—endeavoring by all means to make it superior to its rival institutes—each and all remembering that its prestige depends on individual effort. Should the pupils do so faithfully and well, in after years they will look back with pride on the school of their early days, and ever fondly remember the teachers and guides of their youthful hearts. These principles are far removed from vanity or bigotry—they are honest and commendable feelings, such as will ever tend to foster the eternal spirt of nationality, liberty, and patriotism.

Necessity of Good Order.—It has been well said that "order is Heaven's first law." At all events, we are well assured, that order has always been, and ever will be, the faithful hand-maid of the Creator. The present and past declare that nature knows no chaos. Nature and history affirm that where there is no order there can be no progress. This is true of nations, of armies, of societies, public meetings, and public schools. Order is one of the primary essentials to success in any line of life, and especially to success in teaching. No order, no progress,—such is the universal law. The observance and enforcement of good order in school, curbs the lawless propensities of youthful hearts, civilizes their animal tendencies, and, by obliging them to conform to its conditions—conditions naturally repugnant to their will—it day by day strengthens the power of mind over matter, facilitates all mental acquirements, and endows every individual with the graces of self-control. By its aid, those accomplishments and qualities which at first were foreign, becomes customary and eventually habitual—that is, personal characteristics. Laxity of order is sure to nullify the good intentions of both teachers and parents.

Neatness.—Neatness is also a primary essential in school teaching; and the teacher should always look upon it as a "cardinal virtue." He should insist on its practice by his pupils, and exhibit it in his own person. The school-room should also be characteristic of this virtue. The furniture and everything connected with the school should bear evi-

dences of refined taste and artistic skill in their arrangement. A large, airy, well furnished, well arranged, comfortable school, enlarges the perceptive faculties, captivates the heart, generates cheerful emotions, fosters taste, and has a special tendency to render the minds of children susceptible to noble precepts. Broken windows, broken desks, lame seats, wet walls, and rooms too cold or too hot, have a contrary effect. The quality of the building and furniture has a most powerful effect on the mind and body of the teacher and the taught. How can a sweet little child like to spend five or six hours every day in a building which has a repulsive exterior and a cheerless interior? It would be strange indeed if children did not regard such schools as men regard bastiles or asylums; or as sheep would regard "the shambles" were they endowed with reason. *Bright outside, and bright inside*—such is the school which children love. Again we say, the building should be a handsome one—cheerful looking outside, interesting and attractive inside, a model of neatness, exhibiting artistic taste in all its arrangements.

Brevity should be one of the characteristics of the teacher's manner. Instead of defining, explaining, and repeating laws and principles to his pupils, he should lead them by a few appropriate questions to define, explain, or repeat to him. In this manner he will guide them to discover laws and principles of things for themselves. Knowledge acquired by them in this way becomes part of their being and will never be forgotten; whereas, that imparted by the "telling process" will evaporate and leave not a trace behind. Ideas should never be covered with a multitude of words. Each thought, or principle, should be expressed clearly and fully, but yet as laconically as possible. More than is absolutely necessary should not be said on any subject; for, as Kossuth well observed, "an unnecessary word is a word too much."

Manner.—A quiet gentlemanly (or lady-like) behavior and unassuming manner should be the leading characteristics of boys (and girls) in school. Each should possess a business-like air, and a genial calm should reign in the respective departments during business hours. No conversation should

be tolerated at the desks, nor should one pupil be allowed to interrupt another during recitation, nor indeed at any other time. Each pupil should do his work—the teacher should never do it for him, as many do, through mistaken kindness. Pupils must be made to understand that each and all have a duty to perform, and that it must be done. The teacher should give more assistance to children of the lower forms than to those of the upper. The latter are generally able to help themselves, and require little which a few judicious questions will not lead them to discover; whereas, the former may often need assistance of a more minute and substantial nature. But, as a rule, each pupil should be taught to rely chiefly on himself; babes or invalids are the only individuals fed with a spoon. Self-reliance, perseverance, and industry should be practiced by all.

The habits acquired in school, are those which, in all likelihood, will characterize pupils in after life. How anxiously should we therefore endeavor to guide and fashion them so that they may be a blessing and not a curse, such as may be admired by men and commended by God! The habits of the school, like so many magnetized needles, indicate what the prestige of the nation will be in days to come, and in addition are characteristic of the habits of the adults of the present generation. The germs of the foregoing habits, qualities, and principles are born with the child, or instilled into his mind in the days of infancy. When he comes under the supervision of the public tutor they are still in a crude state, and the teacher should always endeavor to develop and cultivate them to the utmost capacity; so that at the latter day the JUDGE of all the earth may say unto him:—"Well done, thou good and faithful servant, enter thou into the joy of thy Lord."

G. V. LEVAUX.

A RESIDENT of Kalamazoo writes to a "school boared" in Ohio that he will take a school, as he has "tought 2 terms school & I attended Colledge 4 yrs at detroit michigan and am 26 yrs avage!"

ELOCUTION.

LET one consider for a moment how important to a public man's success in life an early, scientific and thorough rhetorical training must be, especially in such a proverbially speech-making nation as we are, and it will strike him at first as remarkable and almost unaccountable that this branch of education should have fallen into such utter neglect in our schools, or should be taught so imperfectly and incorrectly in the few where it is taught at all. In nearly all of our common schools no attention whatever is paid to it, while in most of our high schools the word *declamation* is made to cover the whole subject. A pretence is made of teaching it "after a fashion," but on a system radically wrong, or upon no system at all; and in such an insufficient and incorrect manner that the influence of such *instruction* (if I may dignify it by that title) upon the pupil is more hurtful than beneficial. I state it as my candid opinion, founded upon experience, that the system of instruction in declamation pursued in most of our higher schools and colleges is not only comparatively useless, but positively injurious, and that entire neglect would be preferable.

Here is a specimen of the "system of instruction" (?) which is followed in many, almost all, of our high schools; and I can call upon any teacher in New England to say whether or not it is exaggerated or incorrect.—Upon a certain day a boy is informed by the master that on the following Wednesday he must be prepared to "speak a piece." He is then left to shift for himself until that time and to choose a piece without aid or advice; and generally succeeds in making a selection which is about as appropriate for the stage as a sheriff's writ, or Watts' Cradle Song. This he commits to memory as well as he is able, meanwhile bewailing his sad fate that one of his age should be obliged to speak in public on the stage, "wondering what good it does to speak pieces," and looking forward to that dreaded Wednesday with something like the anticipation of a condemned criminal. At last the day arrives. All the scholars are gathered in the school-room. An ominous expectant silence

falls upon them all, as though they were about to witness the execution of a malefactor. All the circumstances and associations of the time and place are such as to terrify and dishearten our hero, who sits quaking and conscious of an intense desire to sink through the floor, out of sight forever, when he hears the awful voice of the master calling his name. Then he starts up desperately, terrified and bewildered, and conscious of only one thing, that all eyes are upon him. He can *feel* them staring at him. He stumbles upon the stage, ducks his head spasmodically, casts his eyes up to the ceiling or down to his feet, and, alternately flushing and paling, begins to mumble his "piece," meanwhile employing his hands in energetically twisting the outside seams of his trowsers, or now and then applying one convulsively to his mouth to cover a hysterical giggle. At last he says the final word, gets himself off the stage, he has no idea how, flops down into his seat with a sigh of relief that *that* trial is over, and is ready to grin at the next victim. And the teacher with righteous self-satisfaction esteems *his* duty done with *that* boy, and will complacently tell you that such an experience will give a boy "confidence." *Confidence*, indeed! It would be a soothing sarcasm, and a brilliant bit of poetical justice to give such a teacher a "half a dozen" well laid on with a beach seal, and then ask him if *that* experience does not give *him* "confidence."

Now go into our churches, our legislative halls, our lecture rooms, and public gatherings of every kind, and you will witness the legitimate results of such a course of instruction. Show me a good public speaker, one devoid of glaring eccentricities and peculiarities of speech and gesture, possessing the five great attributes of genuine expression in attitude and action named by Prof. Russell in his analysis of this subject, viz.: "truth, firmness, force, freedom, and propriety," one who is comparatively perfect in pronunciation, clear in articulation, and graceful in gesture, and I will show you a white crow. They are just about as plentiful. A quotation from Dr. Rush will be here appropriate:

"Go to some, may I say all, of our colleges and universities, and observe how the art of speaking is *not* taught. See a boy of but fifteen years sent upon the stage, pale, and choking with apprehension in an attempt to dothat, without instruction, which he came purposely

to learn; and furnishing amusement to his class-mates by a pardonable awkwardness, which should be punished in the person of his pretending but neglectful preceptor with little less than scourging. Then visit a conservatoire of music, observe there the orderly tasks, the masterly discipline, the unwearied superintendence, and the incessant toil to produce accomplishment of voice; and afterwards do not be surprised that the pulpit, senate, bar, and the chair of the medical professorship, are filled with such abominable drawlers, mouthers, mumblers, clatterers, squeakers, chanters, and mongers in monotony; nor that the schools of singing are constantly sending abroad those great instances of vocal wonder, who draw forth the intelligent curiosity and produce the crowning delight and approbation of the prince and the sage."

If a person can be found who will deny that a correct and finished elocutionary training is not a desirable and important accomplishment, "then him have I offended." "It is the crowning grace of a liberal elocution." There is no one thing that conduces more to the success of a teacher than a good elocutionary culture.

Now let us consider some of the causes of this neglect of elocution in modern education, and the reasons why it is taught so incorrectly and imperfectly when taught at all. In the first place the teachers will tell you that in their opinion the science of elocutionary instruction is impracticable and useless, from its being needlessly intricate and elaborate; and will quote the oft repeated lines,

> "For all a rhetorician's rules,
> Teach nothing but to name his tools,"

and apply them to elocution. Now I submit that the application of these lines to elocution or rhetoric, *especially*, is unfair. They will apply just as appropriately to nearly every other science. One of the most difficult things to master in the whole range of some of the arts and sciences is their vocabulary; then why deny an adequate and efficient vocabulary to the very important science under consideration? Some discouraged groper among the natural sciences once defined botany as "a vocabulary of scientific terms without any application." Strip geology and medicine of their vocabularies. and you would have the play of Hamlet with Hamlet omitted. Let the carpenter forget that any of his tools ever had a name, and then endeavor to teach an ap-

prentice. Persons who make this criticism would seemingly reduce us all to the condition of the lady who thus perspicuously explained to her daughter the working of the engine of a steamboat: "It is simple enough. You see this what-you-call-em comes up through that what's-i-name and fastens on that thingumy; then the engineer pulls that thingumbob which is fastened to the skewdangle, and that turns the what-you-call-ems and the boat moves." Nor is this criticism in reality a perfectly just one, and a person making it betrays his ignorance of the science of elocution. I have always observed that those who are most skeptical as to the possibilities of elocutionary culture, are invariably those who are themselves unskilful teachers in this branch; and if they will take the trouble to inform themselves they will find that the system of elocution devised, abridged and perfected by Rush, Murdock, Russell, Munroe and other eminent elocutionists, is neither cumbersome, intricate nor useless; but on the contrary, is simple, easily mastered and *effective.*

"But," says the man who objects to spending any of the precious school hours upon elocutionary instruction, "*Orator nascitur non fit.* If the boy is born to be an orator he will be one, all circumstances to the contrary notwithstanding; and if he is not 'born with it in him' to become an orator, all your elocutionary drill, and instruction and discipline, cannot make him one." This is the argument against elocution most difficult to refute, because it is slightly tinctured with truth.

> A lie which is all a lie, may be met and fought with outright;
> But a lie which is part a truth is a harder matter to fight.

To persons making this objection I would say, that I do not propose to assert that by teaching elocution more thoroughly and systematically in our schools, we shall be able to fashion out of every gawky lad a Demosthenes, a Cicero, a Pitt, or a Webster; any more than by teaching mathematics to a class of boys we shall be able to make each one a Newton, a Pascal, or a La Place. The teacher who instructs a number of boys in arithmetic does not of course expect that each one by means of this instruction is to become a famous mathematician; but if there is one of the number who has a natural inclination toward "the dry

science," the teaching will foster this tendency, and help him on in the path to distinction in his chosen study. So in elocution. If a boy possesses the natural qualifications for a great orator, united with a desire and determination to become one, then elocutionary culture, thorough, systematic, and conducted upon correct principles, is needed to encourage this innate tendency, draw forth and perfect his latent powers, and assist in making him the eloquent and impressive speaker he can become. If, on the other hand he is awkward and ungainly upon the stage, defective in articulation and pronunciation, weak in lungs, and devoid of any ambition or desire to become an eminent public speaker, then so much the more does he stand in need of patient, unwearied, continuous, and correct instruction and drill in elocution; that he may become at least an endurable speaker, and not disgrace himself and weary and disgust his hearers, should he ever find it necessary to address a meeting of any kind, as what man does not find it necessary some time in his life? And by accomplishing this result the teacher may lay the flattering unction to his soul, that he has perhaps lessened the number of public bores by one. DON OLAND.

(*Concluded next month.*)

SENSIBLE PROGRESS.

THE next Triennial Catalogue of Dartmouth College, is to appear in English instead of Latin, as heretofore. This is really a sensible move on the part of the Trustees; and we trust it will be so regarded and acted upon by our College Trustees generally. We know no good reason why triennial any more than annual catalogues should be printed in Latin; and we hope this piece of pedantry, which has come down to us from European colleges of former centuries, will soon be abolished. Another sensible step in the same direction would be to have Salutatory and Greek orations in English; or, if they must be in some foreign language, in French, German, or some other *living* language, so that a portion, if not all, of the auditors may judge some-

thing respecting the speaker's attainments therein, and not in a dead language, which, if not incomprehensible to all, may be given forth as a mere parrot utterance, and afford no idea whatever of the student's proficiency or real knowledge of the speech he is using.

These Latin salutatory orations always remind us of the case of a clergyman friend of ours. Several years ago, when he was about to be examined for licensure as a minister of the Gospel, he was appointed to prepare, among other things, an essay in Latin on the Divinity of Christ. With the aid of his Latin Grammar and Lexicon, he succeeded in turning his thoughts, after having embodied them in English, into a kind of dialect, the latinity of which he was satisfied was anything but Ciceronian. With many fears and much trembling, he appeared, on the appointed day and in due time, with his essay. For five minutes, his "grave and reverend seniors" seemed to listen; and when they came to pass judgment, to his surprise they pronounced the essay "excellent Latin," while he himself knew that, in the nature of things, it was impossible it should be even tolerable. He acknowledged to a feeling of disgust and mortification at the thought that he had given so much time and anxiety to the preparation of an essay for judges who showed themselves even less capable than himself of distinguishing between patois and good Latin. So our College Salutatorians might feel, if they realized how rusty or otherwise incapable of judging their auditors were—excepting, of course, and always, the professor of Greek and Latin at their elbow.

S. W. W.

A San Francisco school teacher received the following note from the "ostensible" parent of one of his pupils—"I hope, as to my John, you will flog him just as offin as you kin. Heas a bad boy—is John. Altho I've bin in the habit of teachin him miself, it seems to me he will never larn anything—his spellen is ottragously defishent. Wallop him well, ser, and you will receiv my thanks."

POPULAR EDUCATION.

A CERTAIN class of philosophic theorists maintain with great pertinacity that Government has no more right to undertake to provide for primary education than it has to find pork, food, and clothing for its citizens. Like many other abstract conclusions based upon the existence of an ideally perfect state of society, this is one which the practical sense of modern communities has made very short work of. In fact, so fully impressed are the great majority of educational reformers all over the world with the necessity for State control over popular education, that they are nearly united in the opinion that in supplying the means of tuition, Government only fulfills half a duty which can only be adequately completed by enacting legal penalties against the neglect of these means. The only two nations in the world who possess a comprehensive scheme of popular education, into which the compulsory element does not enter, are England and the United States. The Free School law removed the last existing barrier to the general usefulness of our public schools. After three years' experience of its highly beneficial operation, it has become clear to nearly every one conversant with the subject, that in order to reap all the advantages we are entitled to expect from our liberal provision for popular education, we must deny to any parent the liberty of allowing his children to grow up in ignorance. The latest report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction teems with recommendations from District Commissioners on the subject of compulsory education. In some cases they are cautious and tentative, like the following: "There seems to be a feeling in favor of conferring upon trustees some power, at least, to compel attendance. I can see no reason why some discretion might not be given them on this subject." In others they are decided and conclusive: "There is justice in the demand made at this time by the property-holders. They say, try the force of law, and compel attendance, that society, as a whole, may be benefited by the privileges furnished by making the schools free." Or, again: "I, for one, hope to

see, before long, some form of enactment which shall compel general education. I have found, where I least looked for it, a sentiment that said, 'We are taxed to educate the people; let us make sure that they are educated.'"

It is instructive to find the same subject occupying the attention of the lately elected School Board of the English metropolis at the very outset of their labors. The new English Education bill invests a discretionary power in local Boards to enact a compulsory clause, should they have a majority of rate-payers in its favor. The London School Board includes among its members ladies, clergymen of the State Church and of dissenting bodies, members of Parliament, and artisans. A curious unanimity appears to prevail among representatives, so diverse in other respects, on the subject of the "absolute necessity" of compulsion, under a form more or less modified, being applied to the class of children who could not be induced to accept the advantages of education voluntarily. A workingman was the most decided advocate of the step, and this speaker "urged the Board not to treat the matter so gingerly as they had been doing, and not to begin at the wrong end by dealing with the cases of the younger children first. The body of artisans would willingly agree even to an increased burden of taxation if this system could be undertaken, and the education of their class improved in the next generation. Compulsion would in future be the rule, and the result would be a great improvement in the social condition of the country." The ultimate decision of the Board was a resolution to the effect that it "desired to affirm the necessity of enforcing attendance at school in accordance with the provision of the act, such enforcement to be carried out under such limitations and regulations as shall hereafter be approved by the Board." New York has at present a very much smaller per centage of ignorance among its juvenile population to deal with than London. But no one familiar with the great irregularities in our school attendance, revealed in the low daily average, as compared with the total of the registers, can fail to see that much of our tuition is necessarily of the most inadequate kind. Side by side with, say one-tenth of our city children, growing up in absolute ignorance, there are at

least other two-tenths only one step removed from it. Some such resolution as that adopted in London will, sooner or later, be forced upon us.—*N. Y. Times.*

THE SCHOOLMASTER'S WIFE.

WOMEN have just as keen intelligence as men; less power, may-be, of abstract reasoning; but far finer perceptive and linguistic faculties. They need not be trained to exhaustive scholarship; but refinement of mental culture suits them, perhaps, even more than it does our own sex.

I imagine that the Lady Jane, who read her Phædo when the horn was calling, had as pretty a mouse-face as you ever saw in a dream; and I am sure that gentle girl was a better scholar than any lad of seventeen is now in any school of England or Scotland.

And once upon a time, reader—a long, long while ago—I knew a schoolmaster; and that schoolmaster had a wife. And she was young, and fair, and learned; like that princess-pupil of old Ascham; fair and learned as Sydney's sister, Pembroke's mother. And her voice was ever soft, gentle, and low, reader: an excellent thing in woman. And her fingers were quick at needle-work and nimble in all a housewife's cunning. And she could draw sweet music from the ivory board; and sweeter, stranger music from the dull life of her schoolmaster husband. And she was slow of heart to understand mischief, but her feet ran swift to do good. And she was simple with the simplicity of girlhood, and wise with the wisdom that cometh only of the Lord—cometh only to the children of the Kingdom.

And her sweet, young life was as a morning hymn, sung by child-voices to rich organ-music. Time shall throw his dart at Death, ere Death has slain such another.

For she died, reader, a long, long while ago. And I stood once by her grave; her green grave, not far from dear Dunedin. Died, reader, for all she was so fair and young, and learned, and simple, and good.

And I am told it made a great difference to that schoolmaster.—*Day-Dreams of a Schoolmaster.*

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER X.

FOR a short distance only did Wülfing and the schulze pursue the same road. While they were thus walking together, Wülfing questioned his friend, whether Bartel had paid his taxes.

"To the last farthing," answered the other, "which is all the more wonderful, because the very best people are still in arrears."

"But how in the world does he get his money?" asked the forester, "I never find him at any place where masons are working, and I am walking about everywhere in the country, you know. But whenever I pass a tavern, I am almost sure to see him hanging about."

"Why," said the schulze, "his wife must make the money for both of them. You know she is picking up rags and bones which they buy of her at the factory. And did you never hear that Marlene, Bartel's daughter, is going to marry Hennenhoeft, your wood-ward? It is not difficult to guess where the money comes from."

The forester shook his head in gloomy silence. By this time they had arrived at the point where their roads separated. The schulze took the road for his dairy, while Wülfing pursued the main road toward the manor-house.

This chateau, belonging to Baron de Fernau's large estate, was seldom or never inhabited by its owner or any member of his family. The Baron preferred the gay style of city life in the metropolis. One part of the chateau was occupied by our old acquaintance, Mr. Anbelang, formerly the agricultural supervisor of Count Wildenschwert's estate. Mr. Anbelang was now the Baron's representative, the receiver of his revenues, and his chief official.[1] It was he who had summoned Wülfing to the manor-house.

Wülfing's position was generally considered as lucrative

[1] According to the system, still prevailing in a great part of Germany, the owners of manorial lands have privileges very similar to those of the English landed nobility. They exercise almost all rights which in the cities belong to the city governments.

and comfortable. His wife, the same Gussy Wildman with whom we are already acquainted, had borne him two sons who were now receiving education in a distinguished Polytechnical Institute, and it was said that the Baron was paying for their education. But there seemed to be cares that were preying on his life. There was an habitual despondency about him, which seemed to be greatest when official necessity (for otherwise he shunned his company) brought him in contact with Hennenhöft. In addition to this, several recent incidents seemed to have greatly increased his ill-humor. The Baron and his wife had always treated him, and in fact all their officials, with great liberality, if not lavishness. But of late a change had taken place. The frequent gratuities which he and the other officers had been in the habit of receiving had been discontinued; salaries were curtailed; all kinds of retrenchment were introduced. The chief officer, Mr. Anbelang, had intimated that he was directed to increase the revenues of the estate. Wood had been lately sold out of the forest to the value of more than 30,000 dollars. All this had been going on for a time with the express understanding that nothing was to be changed in Wülfing's and Hennenhöft's departments. But lately orders had been issued that the expenditures of the forest department must be diminished and its regular revenues increased. The stock of game which was kept in the forest was altogether inadequate, and must be largely increased, it being evident that poachers were continually committing depredations in the forest. The Baron had written that Mr. Anbelang's accounts showed the cost of every deer which was sent to his table to be 250 dollars.

Wülfing was sincerely desirous of executing the Baron's directions to the best of his ability, and he had earnestly considered how the poachers might be kept from the forest, how the stealing of wood and the evident defalcations in the charcoal and tar departments might be stopped. It was not doubtful to him that peculation and dishonesty was practised in these departments, and that Hennenhöft had a hand in it. And still he shrunk from taking measures against him, or even communicating with him concerning that matter. In the conference to which Mr. Anbelang had invited Wülfing, all these topics, except the last,

were discussed. After a protracted sitting, in which both men had been comparing notes on all details, Wülfing was informed that Anbelang had entered into an agreement with Baron Tümpling, a neighboring nobleman, and several other land owners, to put an effective stop to the poaching. They had determined on a raid against the poachers which was to take place that very night. Since it was known that there were several dangerous characters among them, it was expected that they would make use of their fire-arms if any attempt should be made to arrest them or to stop their lawless trade. It had, therefore, seemed necessary to employ several gensd'armes and other armed officers, and it was expected that Wülfing would be present, and assist the party with his advice, and if necessary with his arms. All were to assemble at 11 o'clock, at Wolf's corner. Before Wülfing left the chateau, Mr. Anbelang, who evidently considered Wülfing's integrity to be unquestionable, had pledged him to observe the strictest secrecy as to the projected expedition, and not to breathe a word concerning it to any person whatsoever.

Wülfing was invited by Mr. Nesselborn to partake in the social enjoyment of the evening by which the worthy schoolmaster's birth-day was to be celebrated. On his way to the school-house he gave way to the mournful meditations which the proposed expedition, and Hennenhöft's probable connection with the poachers could not fail to awaken in him. His own relation to Hennenhöft and to Countess Jadwiga, his benefactress, were foremost in his mind, and his former life, a life of errors and repentance, was brought vividly before him. When Countess Jadwiga had given testimony in his favor, while he was under the charge of attempted arson, the Dornweil Court did not immediately accept her statements as fully satisfactory. But Count Wildenschwert had afterwards seen fit to withdraw his charges. Some said that his wife's desertion, her determined resolution to remain separated from him, and the countenance which her father had given to her, had filled the Count with such contempt for men that he had suffered the matter to drop from sheer disgust. Others maintained that the Count had a suspicion against his wife of being Hennenhöft's and Wülfing's accomplice in the attempted crime. As to

her motives, he believed that it was her intention to give him pain by destroying his beloved collections. His honor would not allow these facts to become public, and hence he affected to believe in the truth of his wife's deposition, and let the whole matter drop. However this may be, certain it was that Hennenhöft, Wülfing and his wife owed everything to the Countess. That they must have repaid that deed of kindness with some act, perhaps not altogether in accordance with the laws, was made probable by the fact that the Countess continued to overwhelm them with benefits even after her divorce from the Count of Wildenschwert, soon after which she had become the Baroness of Fernau. Wülfing's habitual state of depression, and some occasional remarks of his wife, indicated that his relations to the Countess and to Hennenhöft must be of a peculiar and mysterious nature.

Secret guilt is like an overflowing spring. It will break its course in some direction. Soon it oozes forth from the earth in places least expected. Thus, conscience digs its own channels, affecting even the sound parts of the soul. In such a state everything seems failure and disappointment. Sins are remembered for which we thought we had fully atoned by long contrition. After remorselessly dissecting our excuses, we find that they do not hold good. We discover falsehood in what the rest of the world has readily taken for truth. Our self-tormenting soul shrinks in the face of Eternal light, as our bodily eyes are blinded by the rays of the sun.

It was evident that secret guilt weighed on the souls of both Wülfing and his wife. They were living in strict seclusion in their lonely cottage, avoiding all amusements and even the company of their friends. Never did they leave the house of God, at which their attendance was regular, without tears in their eyes. They never received a letter from the mail-carrier without showing signs of dread. It is true Wülfing's wife did not bear her head so humbly as her husband; for in certain conditions of life women show more moral courage than men. Only in Hennenhöft's presence would she cast down her eyes. She and her husband shunned all contact with him, never coming near his dismal dwelling. There had been once an old convent in the midst of the for-

est. Its ruins were now overgrown with grass and fern. But if the spade were applied to that spot, it would encounter old walls and vaults; even above ground a dilapidated square was left, with here and there a turret or a cell looming over the ruins. This old masonry, it was rumored, was by subterranean passages connected with the seignorial buildings of Steinthal. With these relics of former ages modern structures had been connected. Long sheds and similar buildings had been erected for the drying of bark and the storing of charcoal. There were also furnaces and kilns for reducing the forest trees to charcoal, and transforming the pitch of the firs and pines into tar. All this was under Hennenhöft's direction. Neither Wülfing nor his wife ever approached this part of the forest.

It had now become necessary for Wülfing to come to an open collision with his former companion. In spite of his given promise, the question repeatedly arose in his mind whether he should not warn Hennenhöft of the expedition projected by his superiors. He was almost resolved to do it, and rehearsed to himself the way he would address him: "Man," he would say, "the first transgression of my life united our fates. When we were serving our country as soldiers, your example seduced me to gambling, drinking, and all manner of dissipation. I knew that you were robbing the Government by stealing arms, leather and clothing from the storehouses. I abetted all these crimes by allowing you to enter the building when I was on guard duty. We were both found out, and suffered a disgraceful punishment. Being thus cut off from an honest career, I could not, dishonored as I was, find employment. While I was thus struggling with my fate, you approached me again, railed at my good resolutions, and induced me to make use of forged testimonials. Your skilful hand had fabricated for me a certificate, counterfeiting the signatures of our former military superiors. On the ground of these forged papers I found employment in the service of the Count of Wilden schwert. I served him faithfully for years, submitting to all his caprices, forcing my natural temper into humility; for I knew my own worthlessness. But in an evil hour my evil spirit awoke again. One evening, being tired by the most exhausting work, I was ordered by the Count to wait upon

a guest, which I sullenly refused with a cutting and imper tinent remark. The Count, in a fury, struck and kicked me. Breathing vengeance, I fled, and met—you. I told you all You wanted employment, and I was willing that you should have my place. You went to the castle, but returned furious and thirsting for vengeance. In that disastrous night when I, in your company, returned to the castle to take what belonged to me, you raised the torch in spite of my protests. Then the warning of an angel struck our ears. We fled, but were seized and imprisoned. And that witness of your intended crime, who might have destroyed us, had mercy on us, and opened the bars of our prison. Then even your heart became soft, and you vowed to her that had saved us, to become an honest man, but——"

Wülfing's thoughts were interrupted by a terrible recollection. Lightnings flashed up in the night of his soul, illuminating the chasm that yawned before him. He instinctively felt that the consequences of the next night might even reach his benefactress, and bury her under Hennenhöft's ruin. And yet he could not warn Hennenhöft without breaking his solemn promise and sacrificing that self-respect which he was determined not to lose again, now that he had recovered it. Thus divided in his heart, he arrived at the school-house, where the little company were indulging in innocent mirth. Mr. Peterenz, the village clergyman, and Mr. Stutzbart were among the guests. The grandfather had been notified that his son Lienhard would arrive in the evening, to the great delight of Mr. Peterenz, who flattered himself with the hope of "saving a sermon without an exchange of pulpits." Immediately after the hunter's entrance the mail coach arrived, and the whole company went out to receive the honored son of their aged host. Having gone through with the usual greetings and hand-shakings, and having delivered the various tokens of affection and birthday presents from his wife and his two daughters, Lienhard took his seat among the little company and joined in their jovial conversation. When he was informed that Gertrude, his niece, was about to be sent to a boarding-school, he made many remarks on the system of education generally pursued in such institutions. Lienhard Nesselborn had not lost his old interest in the "school question." He condemned most

of the boarding institutes. They were mere pecuniary speculations: the principals, generally persons who had suffered shipwreck in other occupations, were in the habit of opening these institutions with high-sounding phrases; but the fact was, they cared for nothing but money-making. Great principles and educational truths were talked of, but not carried out. The whole educational machinery had the great ultimate design to feed the proprietor. In the most favorable case he would blindly follow governmental regulations and orders, to secure the favor of the State authorities!

There were several replies on the part of the old gentleman and Mr. Peterenz. The latter made the conversation more general. He referred to Jeremiah Gotthelf,[1] who, in his opinion, had succeeded best in representing the true ideal of an instructor of the people. But Lienhard decidedly protested against that opinion.

"No, no," he said; "that schoolmaster Käser of Jeremiah Gotthelf is a miserable wretch—a bungler from beginning to end. I do not dispute the almost Homeric art in the composition, and acknowledge the great skill with which the author has laid open the most secret pages of nature, and in such a manner as to engage our warm sympathy with his picture. But does Käser show a true conception of the dignity of the teacher's profession? Does not that conceited Swiss theologian, who ought to have been called Bitius instead of Bitzius, distinctly show how utterly superfluous the great question of popular education appears to him? He derides it, he delivers it to the scholastic councellors to be cold-shouldered! He goes to the whole length of reaction, ridicules any participation of the people in the administration or making of laws, and considers the Lord a mere task-master, and his holy Gospel a rod. In this spirit he has represented the great pedagogical question of the century in the garb of a wretched and ragged beggar. Attempting to describe the educational world in Switzerland before Pestalozzi, he nowhere gives to him, the great reformer, the honor that is due him! He ridicules those benevolent officers who en-

1 Jeremias Gotthelf is the *nom de plume* of Albert Bitzius, an eminent author in regard to popular education. Bitzius died in 1854, at which time he was a clergyman in the Canton of Bern, Switzerland. His work referred to has the title: "Sorrows and joys of a Schoolmaster." Bern, 1838. The hero of the tale is Schoolmaster Käser.—*Translator.*

deavor to throw light into his stupid, beastly, thievish Käser. Can all his poetical pictures compensate for the way in which he makes that former weaver, a fellow without any call for the profession of a teacher, expatiate on his 'sorrows and joys,' just as our dear colleagues would wish the profession to be degraded? But the impure always punishes itself. This dolt relates his history with remarks which can only be the result of the most perfect mental education. On every page, at every passage, borrowed from the Swiss minister's highly finished sermons, the reader must ask the question, how in the world all that has come to that weaver? The author has entirely forgotten to explain the sudden illumination of that blockhead. In vain we expect to be told of the way in which his spirit received the ability thus to criticize, reprimand and ridicule himself. The whole story is an unsolved riddle. Only one thing is explained, namely: the hatred of the theologians to the school, to which they even grudge the word 'master.' That word, of course, is the pulpit's monopoly."

Mr. Peterenz wisely avoided taking sides with the attacked party, not wishing to incur the suspicion of entertaining the ultra views, so mercilessly denounced by Lienhard. He simply tried to smooth somewhat the points of the attack "It is a real pity," he said, "that we are never able to remove the earthly dross from the heavenly ideals that are living in our minds. The beauty of even the finest specimens of plants which we take up from the ground is marred by the filth of the earth and the worms and slugs adhering to them. The perfect model teacher, my dear colleague, is yet to be born, nay, even the perfect model pupil! Yes, even model pupils we should have; children, handed over to school, not by the house and its prejudices, but by nature herself; children that need not to unlearn, but merely to receive! It is only too true, every thing is full of scum!"

"The true pedagogic faith," replied Lienhard, "justifies, cleanses and purifies everything. We must educate for a life such as must have been conceived by the Almighty when he created man. Rousseau's Emil is a fable for the world only as it now exists. But for the educator's conscience, for the spiritual world, that Emil has been a reality, and is alive still!"

The guests separated at an early hour. Then there was a peculiar silence between Lienhard and his father, and little Gertrude's spirits became sad and depressed. Under some pretext she was sent out of the room. Her heart yearned to learn the substance of the conversation which was opened between father and son. Passing and repassing at the door, she was able to gather up so many fragments of this conversation that she became aware at least of its main points.

"My brother's inheritance," said the grandfather, "which I might have kept for myself, in order to have a few days of rest at the evening of my life, was divided by me into two shares, one of which you received for your support at the university. Your brother invested the other in his farm, and the sale of the estate after his death produced an almost equal amount, consisting of four thousand dollars in good stocks, which I am preserving for Gertrude. She is an orphan. When I die—"

"Would we not, then, deal by her like fathers, mothers, sisters?" interrupted the son.

"*Your* wife, and deal like a mother!—Your daughters, and act like sisters! If phrases were food and clothing! No, my dear son, on this security I cannot leave behind me the poor orphan. I have saved the interest to send her to a seminary, of course not to a fashionable one."

"To bigots!"

"What harm if she dresses in dark blue calico, with a white apron like a nun? As a clergyman you should know that too much religion can never come into young hearts; rather too much than too little!"

For a while there was silence in the room. Then Gertrude's uncle rehearsed his plans. His vocation as a minister had now become an insupportable burden; he was resolved to give it up and devote himself to education. He would establish in the metropolis a great educational institute, both for day-scholars and boarders. There would be six departments; he would prepare his pupils even for the university. A large building suited to this purpose was just now for sale. He had already in view several teachers, and many pupils too. A well written programme would secure a good beginning. There were innumerable parents not able to educate their children in their own houses. Others

looked at our public gymnasiums with distrust; they had become barracks. The public teachers appointed by the government were living to satisfy their own vanity, their fame through learned journals. It was more important to them to write a Latin "school-programme" which would be reviewed in the papers, than to correct the tasks of their pupils. Personal education was wanting everywhere. "It is true," he continued, "my prospectus cannot explain all this without restraint. That would bring out countless enemies against me. But the attentive reader will read it 'between the lines.' Then at length I shall be in my own element! Even if I begin with no more than twenty boarders, in three years I shall have ten times as many. The results of my institute will be known. Of course, I shall not place them under a bushel. People must see how restlessly I work. The joyful shouts from our 'Turnplatz' shall resound far over our garden-walls, and over Germany. Cheerful, healthful faces will be our most attracting recommendation. I have nearly everything I could desire for the realization of this plan! Bögendorf, my old university friend, has been appointed superintendent of schools in the ministry. Doctor Staudner, another old friend, will negotiate for the property, and has promised to procure my first pupils. Nothing is wanting but some money. Two thousand dollars have already been collected by my friends. If you give me Gertrude's four thousand dollars, my enterprise will be secured, and I shall perform great things in the spirit of our master Pestalozzi!"

Gertrude had caught parts of this address, and listened now to the replies of her grandfather. He closed them with allusions to her uncle's wife and daughters.

"This was your first misfortune," he remarked, referring probably to the development of his son in general. "Your second misfortune was the choice of your wife. She was good-looking, unquestionably, and is still so. But she was of no use to you. Your mind has always been aiming at high and serious things, but your wife's mind has been occupied with parties, associating with the higher classes, dress and scandal. All this was nearer to her heart than to assist you in your high vocation. A minister's wife must either be a blessing to her husband, or a curse. She can

ruin his whole harvest, can turn his holy gown into a buffoon's jacket. Oh Lienhard, Lienhard! It was your great mistake that you thought more of what flattered your senses than of that which would have made your future happiness! Now your children are grown up. The apple did not fall far from the tree. The little town of Rohrbach is no longer sufficient for their worldly hearts. What the mother does not ask for herself, she asks for her daughters. And if *they* are always dressed in the newest fashion, of course, *she* must be too. Thus the so-called love for the daughters furnishes the pretext for wicked attacks on the scant substance of an honest man."

The uncle did not reply. It soon was still in the schoolhouse, its inmates having retired to rest, each busy with his own thoughts.

A LITERARY CURIOSITY.

THE singular rhymes given below have been many times printed, but will be new to not a few of our readers. They were composed during the Revolutionary war, and had a wide circulation, not only in this country but in England, where their peculiar construction seems not to have been discovered, at least for some time. Read across the page they are full of 'Tory' sentiment; read as we print them below, they contend strongly for the Revolutionary cause.

Hark! hark! the trumpets sound, the din of war's alarms,
O'er seas and solid ground, doth call us all to arms.
Who for King George doth stand, their honors soon will shine;
Their ruin is at hand, who with the Congress join.
The acts of Parliament, in them I much delight;
I hate their cursed intent, who for the Congress fight.
The Tories of the day, they are my daily toast;
They soon will sneak away, who independence boast.
Who non-resistance hold, they have my hand and heart;
May they for slaves be sold, who act a Whiggish part.
On Mansfield, North, and Bute, my daily blessings pour;
Confusion and dispute, on Congress evermore.
To North, that British Lord, may honor still be done;
I wish a block and cord, to General Washington.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART TENTH.

THE PEOPLE'S INFLUENCE, 1700–1870.

"It was written with little assistance of the learned, and without any patronage of the great; not in the soft obscurities of retirement, or under the shelter of academic bowers, but amid inconveniences and distraction, in sickness and in sorrow." SAMUEL JOHNSON, 1755.

THE AGE OF JOHNSON, 1745–1800.

THE days of Pope were also the days of what are known as *Grub Street* writers, and these come legitimately before us now, because from their ranks the writer was developed who became "the most conspicuous literary man of his country," in the period now opening before us.

In a filthy and poverty-stricken region of the British metropolis, not far from Bunhill fields, where the ashes of Bunyan and Watts repose, dwelt those hack writers who wrote ballads and reviews, prologues, prefaces, indexes and almanacs. The name which these took from the street has since been applied to productions marked by "bad matter expressed in a bad manner, false, confused histories, low creeping poetry, and grovelling prose," wherever written.

To this circle of writers two young men were added in 1737, one of whom, aged twenty-one, was afterwards celebrated as David Garrick, the peerless actor. The other, aged twenty-eight, will always be known as the Leviathan of Letters—Samuel Johnson. The next year Johnson published a satire entitled *London*, in which he exclaims:

> "This mournful truth is everywhere confessed,
> Slow rises worth, by poverty oppressed."

Continuing a laborious career, he produced in 1749—eleven years later—the *Vanity of Human Wishes*, in which, speaking again from his experience, he said:

> "—— Mark what ills the scholar's life assail,—
> Toil, envy, want, the patron and the jail."

Macaulay calls Dr. Johnson the last survivor of a genuine race of Grub Street hacks; but, though forced, by the con-

dition into which his father's financial embarrassment cast him, thus to labor for his daily bread, he was of a far different character from many, if not from most of his class.

He was a man of strong principles; a moralist, who unsparingly denounced hypocrisy and licentiousness, and a Christian, full of unostentatious charity. As a writer, he depreciated imagination and elevated the understanding. He raised himself to such a position that his own age regarded him as a classic, and he accomplished it by the most laborious application, and in face of obstacles varied in their nature and apparently insurmountable. He still holds an honored place, and is to-day more intimately known than almost any other of our authors. Upon the canvas of Boswell's Life, Dr. Johnson stands out painted with the minuteness of a pre-Raphaelite, bold in outline, and exact in detail. His character and writings are worthy of careful study by those who would be acquainted with all the capabilities of our language. While saying this, I do not wish any one to understand me as recommending him to imitate the style of this or of any other author. He who imitates, usually selects the weak points for copying, and this is especially apparent in the imitators of Dr. Johnson. Those who have attempted it have parodied his style of expression—his antitheses and Latinisms, while they have been utterly unable to re-produce his keen and quick wit, his weighty matter, his knowledge, sagacity and penetration.

Dr. Johnson's great work is the *Dictionary of the English Language*, published, as the result of seven years' toil, in 1755. It entitles him to be called the father of English lexicography, for the work was original, and has had a great influence in fixing the form of our language, and settling the meaning of its words.

A great difference between Johnson and Pope is found in the strong moral purpose of the one, and the lack of that purpose in the other. This purpose is shown in the preface to Johnson's dictionary. Hear the moralist: "It is the misfortune of those who toil at the lower employments of life to be rather driven by fear of evil than attracted by the prospect of good; to be exposed to censure without the hope of praise; to be disgraced by miscarriage or punished

by neglect, where success would have been without applause, and diligence without reward. Among these unhappy mortals is the writer of dictionaries; whom mankind have considered not as the pupil, but as the slave of science, the pioneer of literature, doomed only to remove rubbish, and clear obstructions from the paths through which learning and genius press forward to conquest and glory, without bestowing a smile upon the humble drudge that facilitates their progress. Every other author may aspire to praise, the lexicographer can only hope to escape reproach, and even this negative recompense has been yet granted to very few. *I have, notwithstanding this discouragement, attempted a Dictionary of the English Language.*" He further asserts that he had the honor of his country in view, wishing it no longer to yield "the palm of philology without a contest to the nations of the continent." He says that the chief glory of a nation arises from its authors, and that it was his desire to enable foreign nations and distant ages to gain access to our propagators of knowledge, aiming to "afford light to the repositories of science, and add celebrity to Bacon, to Hooker, to Milton and to Boyle."

Space will not permit us to refer more at length to this interesting writer, but forces us to turn to some of his contemporaries. The first to attract our attention is Edward Gibbon, author of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, the fruit of the thought of twenty-three years. Associated with his is the name of David Hume, author of the dramatic and picturesque *History of England.* Contemporary also was Sir William Jones, the oriental scholar. He was a remarkable linguist, and will be long remembered for his investigations in Asiatic philology and literature, of which we have already spoken in these papers. Edmund Burke belongs also to this age, and he was one of the brilliant group that gathered around the table of the Literary Club at the Mitre. Oliver Goldsmith, too, was at that table, and in spite of his geniality, learning and delicacy of writing, which caused him to be loved and courted, we can scarcely doubt that he was sometimes looked upon as the embodiment of his own philosophic vagabond.

Thomas Gray, the observing and tender lyric poet, gave

us the sweet *Elegy written in a Country Churchyard*, and the Pindaric ode of the *Welsh Bard*, beginning:

> "Ruin seize the ruthless King!
> Confusion on thy banners wait."

Besides these there was the Presbyterian historian, William Robertson; the philosophical Scotch political economist, Adam Smith; the Scotch balladist, Robert Burns, and the graceful and playful singer of Olney, William Cowper.

In America literature began to be cultivated not long after the landing of the Pilgrims. For many years authors were few, and they wrote under many disadvantages. We may consider the literature of the English language produced in our country under three aspects: I. *The Colonial Period*, from 1620–1775; II. *The Revolutionary Period*, from 1775–1830; and III. *The American Period*, from 1830–1870.

The *Colonial Period* covers a part of the age of Johnson. At that time such topics were under discussion in America as we have referred to in England at the time of the Puritan influence, and the period was marked by earnestness and strength, rather than by elegance of style, imagination or delicacy. Among our writers then was Benjamin Franklin, who is too well known to delay us. He was three years older than Dr. Johnson. Associated with Franklin somewhat, and resembling him in desiring to be useful, was Cotton Mather, a divine who, in connection with the witchcraft delusion, has been ably discussed of late.

To mention no more, there was Jonathan Edwards, the metaphysician, whose works rank higher than those of any other writer of the period, and still furnish strong food for thought, and sound arguments to support principles. It is an honor to New England that, so early in her history, she produced a man who, in her remotest limits, so thoroughly cultivated his mind as to produce works which, for power of subtle argument and metaphysical acuteness, caused the great minds of the mother country to acknowledge him their master!

ARTHUR GILMAN.

RULLOFF AGAIN.

WE have already, in April, given a brief sketch of the career and character of Rulloff, the learned murderer. Professor Mather, of Amherst College, recently had an interview with the prisoner, and gives the following interesting account of it:

"My visit was not one of idle curiosity, for one of my colleagues in the college had shown me, some months since, a criticism of Rulloff's, written years ago, when he was in the State Prison at Auburn, N. Y., upon parts of Professor Taylor Lewis's edition of one of Plato's dialogues, which had warmly interested me in his scholarship. The next morning, about nine o'clock, the advocate and I went down to the prison, and the gentlemanly High Sheriff at once consented to grant the interview, if Rulloff was willing. The doomed man at first refused, as he had done of late to all visitors, but when told that I was a student and teacher of Greek, he at once consented. He approached the heavy latticed iron-door and asked very politely if I could remain long enough to learn something of the beauties of his theory of language. Without replying, I turned to the officer and asked if I might be permitted to go into the cell. He said yes, and proceeded to unlock the massive padlocks. It was a long, narrow, granite-built room, but high, and furnished with plenty of light and pure air. As we entered, Rulloff approached with two dilapidated chairs, and with the most winning courtesy, asked us to be seated, and offered to relieve me of my hat. He sat down on his rude pallet opposite me, and I told him that I had seen the criticism referred to above, and that I had desired to learn how he had acquired his knowledge of the old languages. He replied, with a smile, that he had obtained it all by honest work; that he had never been in a college or university, but that from boyhood he had a most intense interest in the beauty and the strength of the Greek tongue. He complained that he had been laughed at by the public as a superficial scholar, and wanted me to satisfy myself on that, and then hear what he had to say about the formation of language. I replied that as we had no text-books I could not examine him, to which he rejoined that many of the classical authors he knew by heart, and would try and repeat portions if I would suggest where he should begin. Thinking that something from the Memorabilia might be appropriate to his present needs, I suggested the third chapter, first book, where the sentiments of Socrates with

reference to God and duty in their purity and exaltation approach so nearly to Biblical revelation, and he at once gave me the Greek. Other parts of the same work, as well as the Iliad of Homer and some of the plays of Sophocles, he showed great familiarity with. Then, in order to show his thoroughness, he criticised the common rendering of certain passages, and he did it with such subtlety and discrimination and elegance as to show that his critical study of these nicer points was more remarkable than his powers of memory; in fact I should say that subtlety of analysis and of reasoning was the marked characteristic of his mind. On one or two passages of Homer, in particular, he showed great acuteness of criticism, and a most thorough appreciation of the grandeur of the sentiment. One or two renderings of President Felton he opposed most vigorously, and when I supported the common version he quoted from a vast range of classics to confirm his view. His theory of language I cannot enter upon here, for it is too subtle for the general reader. It is very original, is quite contrary to the established views upon comparative philology, and probably will never be of any practical use. Most persons think him a monomaniac upon this, and certainly his enthusiasm is most remarkable. He sat there in his chains, just sentenced by the highest court to die on the gallows, and without a word, or apparently a thought about his doom, he argued and plead for his favorite theory as though he were wrestling for his life and was determined to win. He is anxious to have philologists examine the manuscript of his work. He urged me to come with several such men, and take time to see whether his theory is true. He asked my pardon for the apparent dogmatism of the statement, but said he felt convinced that this theory of language was a special revelation to him, and that perhaps a hundred years might elapse ere it would be known again, and then added, significantly, "And you know that whatever is done must be done quickly."

In person, this man is about middle height, and of robust build, and is apparently verging on fifty years of age—not at all the broken old man he has been represented. He has a singular face, not villainous or grossly sensual, nor is it scholarly. The features are strongly marked and full of sinister meaning. It is a face that you could not forget, and yet would not care to think about. His eye, which is dark hazel, I had heard was the striking feature, but it did not impress me so, perhaps because it showed struggle and suffering. The bad lines in his face to me were about his chin and forehead, and his neck is very short, and stout, and heavy. In manners he is very urbane and natural, and

he converses with great facility and elegance. His voice is mellow and pleasant, and occasionally showed tones of tenderness. But, for all that, I do not believe the man has any tenderness save for language. In looking at him you would never imagine him as loving any human being, and you would be sure that his hatred would be implacable. He is certainly an enigma, and offers in himself a powerful argument against the theory that education is alone sufficient to lead to true manhood. Those who would throw out moral and Biblical teaching from our systems of culture have a difficult task to harmonize their theory with such a character as this. Here is a profound and appreciative student of all that is beautiful and glorious in classical learning, working for years as a philologist, and with a zeal rarely equalled, and yet all the time living a life of crime as dark and terrible as any criminal in our land. He shows that true culture and true manhood can only be by a development of the moral sense, and that we must educate the heart as fast as we educate the head, or our knowledge may only increase our sin."

From a letter of Rev. W. Waith, dated Lancaster, N. Y., March 20, and addressed to a journal of this city, we take the following extract:

"At a time (1850–1) when the writer of this was a student of theology at Auburn, and was in the habit of making frequent visits to the State Prison with the chaplain, he became acquainted with Rulloff, who was serving out there a ten years' term of imprisonment. The prisoner was reported to be a remarkable scholar. He was thick set and powerful in bodily appearance, had a broad face, large mouth, and small, brilliant eyes, rather widely separated. A little fluid-lamp used to be hanging at the grating of his cell-door—a special favor conceded to his well-known love of study. He would always come briskly up to the door for a talk; was quick in perception, impatient to reply, and had a habit of setting his head on one side, with a keen, scrutinizing look, while addressed, that gave one the impression of his intention to make a pounce the moment the sentence was finished. Often he caught the word out of the speaker's mouth, and poured forth a voluble reply of his own. His language was good, with a dash of sarcasm, and what he knew, he appeared to have well in hand. About that time, the writer, as a candidate for licensure, had been assigned themes for certain trial-pieces to be presented to the presbytery. One in particular was a critical essay upon a certain passage in the Book of Acts, in

the treatment of which the young theologue supposed himself to have displayed great learning, and had completed his essay with vast parade of authorities and quotations of Greek authors. This essay the chaplain wished might be shown to Rulloff. It was shown to him, and he retained the MS. a few days, after which its author went to talk with the learned prisoner about it. But the author, in *that* talk, stood no more chance of shining than Bill Nye did in playing with the "heathen Chinee." The learned prisoner was up to his eyes in Xenophon, and Plato, and Sophocles, and Euripides, where the young theologue was only ankle-deep; and the latter left somewhat disgusted with the ways of these convicts. In the sequel, Rulloff prepared a review of the critical essay itself, and lent it to the writer, who has always regretted that he did not make and preserve a copy of it, for it was a remarkable production. I showed it, however, to Dr. Henry Mills, the most learned linguist in the theological faculty, who, while censuring the perversity of Rulloff's argument, expressed unfeigned surprise at his unusual knowledge of Greek. Written in a firm, beautiful hand, scrupulously correct in punctuation, and sprinkled over plentifully with Greek quotations (the characters of which were deftly and elegantly formed and carefully accentuated), it was a manuscript to attract a scholar very powerfully. Rulloff had a considerable quantity of books in his cell, the product of over-earning at his work. I do not think he quoted "from memory," as your note intimates. Nor, in spite of all his attainments, do I think he would have passed for what De Quincey calls "a sound, well-built scholar." He was ingenious, penetrating, persevering, curious, but crotchety, perverse, and immensely opinionated. As to the essay he wrote in review of mine, I remember that he objected, on some frivolous ground, to nearly every one of my positions, controverted all my grammatical authorities—but, of the Scriptural passage in question, had such excessively refined grammatical views, *that he utterly declined to venture on any rendering or exegesis of his own.*

One little memorial, a very trifling one, of this remarkable criminal, I retain. It is a scrap of paper, containing, in his own handwriting, a note on some words in the "Memorabilia" of Socrates (i. 1, 9). I transcribe it as a curiosity:

'ἐπὶ ζεῦγος λαβεῖν] rendered by Kühner, *ad vehendum adhibere*, as ἐπὶ δεῖπνον (he says) *may* sometimes be rendered *ad coenandum*. This passage, however, seems capable of a less constrained interpretation. Compare also ἐπ' ἄλλα τοιαῦτα (Mem. Soc., i. 2, 9), and ἐφ' ἃ ἥκοιμι (ii. 3, 13), as these all require (perhaps) a common treatment.'

I really think that this little scrap, when we consider that it was penned behind the grating by a man who has been convicted of the most horrid crimes, and will, probably, soon die on the scaffold, deserves preservation."

HOW THE EXCAVATIONS ARE CONDUCTED AT POMPEII.

AN "excavation pic-nic" took place at Pompeii in honor of the arrival of Professor Pierce and the other members of the American Eclipse Expedition. A correspondent of the Boston *Advertiser* describes the scene: "On arriving at Pompeii the party were first conducted to the present limit of the excavations that they might witness the entire process of the labor. The wheelbarrow is still unknown to the Italian laborer, and his rude broad pick, and his *zappa*, which serves alike for hoe and spade, would be disdained by the meanest of America's adopted fellow-citizens. Men and women, boys and girls, are employed indifferently, and go scrambling and chattering up the steep bank, with their little basketful of dirt upon head or shoulder. A miniature railway, operated by boy-power, is laid near the edge of the cutting, and as fast as the cars are filled they are pushed away beyond the lines of the city walls and beyond the amphitheatre, where their contents are dumped. Close upon the diggers follow another set of workmen. These prop up crooked walls, repair breaches made by tearing down the roof supports and lintels, if these are of such extent as to threaten the crumbling of the partitions, cut out and carry away such mural paintings and tablets as have any unusual value and can be removed in good condition, or roof over and otherwise protect such as must be left in place, but might suffer from exposure.

Just at present the excavators are revealing nothing of any intrinsic value, for the street now opening appears to have been almost exclusively occupied by mining shopkeepers—some of them possibly in the military equipment business, for a portion of a full-length and life-sized painting of

a Roman legionary, in complete armor, has recently been brought to light beside one shop-door. In many other places in the neighborhood are painted up what seems to be the names of candidates for various local offices, so that perhaps this district was the haunt of the ward-politicians of an older day. Accordingly, Professor Pierce's party were warned that they must not anticipate the finding of any treasures, nor even be disappointed if nothing were found, for this is the case with many buildings, everything having either been carried away or destroyed.

The street itself must have been a pretty one, for the buildings throughout nearly its entire length were painted in high alternate panels of red and black, relieved with some light ornament. Doubtless it was also a lively one, for beside all its shops it boasted a livery-stable, in front of whose broad doorway the sidewalk was sloped to the roadway, that the chariots might roll out freely. The more modest art of donkey-riding, too, found its opportunities here, for a great room in the rear of the stable indicates by its frescoes that the proprietor did not content himself alone with "carriage-customers."

Two or three of the most promising shops and houses had been reserved by the superintendent for particular attention, and, in front of them, chairs had been placed for the company. The *debris* had been left, as we have intimated above, to the depth of two or three feet over the floors, and the doorway had been blocked by large stones to keep the looser dirt from rolling out into the clean-kept street. A dozen men were immediately set to work, and about as many *custodi* stood by, watching with all the sharpness of their long-trained eyes that nothing might be caught up and concealed. Experience has taught the directors in what part of each particular building objects are most likely to be found; and, therefore, while one man was digging away with the utmost *insouciance*, his fellow, close beside him, would be upon his knees carefully scraping away the dirt with his fingers.

The first building was evidently a shop, with a living-room at the back, but there were no external indications of its character. Digging soon developed a great iron

furnace, or oven, leaden-covered, and set in brick, in the centre of the front-room; and the most popular surmise was the owner had been a cook, for a few bronze vessels of the saucepan-type were found near the furnace, together with the bones of two or three dogs and cats, which imagination figured as having sought the shop after its master's flight, in search of fat pickings, and as having paid for their gluttony more dearly than by a heating.

A couple of wine *amphoræ*, a lamp, a bit of money, a bronze ring, some ivory pallets for the hinges of doors and movables, a door-key, and a few nails, composed the treasure-trove, the back-room being absolutely empty. Fragments of the red tiles and some charred bits of the wood-work, which throughout the city was almost all ignited by the blazing cinders of the *dies iræ*—were mingled with the ashes and pumice, as also were a few broken jars and lamps; but all the latter pieces were broken to atoms as fast as found, that nothing recognizable as a bit of Pompeii might go elsewhere than into the Museum. The next door neighbor of our shopkeeper had left nothing for posterity but his simple mosaic pavement; perhaps, on the other hand, we thought his friend had left his trifles behind him in order to take his stone-carpet with him, for in his two rooms we found nothing but the base earth for flooring.

BAD AIR vs. RELIGION.

MANY a farmer and housekeeper wonders why it is that they must needs take a nap every Sunday in sermon-time. When the parson gets comfortably into the second or third head of his discourse and his congregation have settled into the easiest position to listen, gentle sleep begins to steal over their faculties, and the good man is surprised at finding his argument less cogent than it seemed when prepared in the solitude of his study. At home, the busy matron never thinks of napping at eleven

o'clock in the morning, and the man of business would consider his sanity or common-sense sadly called in question should a friend propose a half-hour's nap at that hour of the day. Nevertheless, they both sleep like kittens in their pews, and logic, rhetoric, eloquence, are alike wasted in the vain attempt to rouse their sluggish souls. The question of the poet, so often sung in our assemblies,

"My drowsy powers, why sleep ye so?"

is exactly in point, and we propose as an answer, "Because we are all breathing carbonic acid gas—deadly poison; because the sexton didn't let the foul air of last Sunday's congregation out of the doors and windows, and the fresh, pure air of heaven in." Look round at the audience; that feverish flush on the face isn't heat, it is poison; the lady nodding over there, her nose and cheeks like a scarlet-rose, is not too warm, for the thermometer doesn't stand over 70 deg.—she is partially suffocated—what she wants is fresh air. That hard-working mechanic and farmer doesn't sleep because he watched with a sick child last night, but simply for want of oxygen to keep the flame of intellectual and physical activity brightly burning. Nobody can rise on wings of faith in a poisonous atmosphere. Oxygen and religion cannot be separated in this unrighteous manner. We cannot live in conformity to spiritual laws while in open violation of the physical. Is your sexton a man of intelligence sufficient to understand the necessity and reason of ample ventilation? Does he know that every human being vitiates—at the least estimate, four cubic feet of air every minute? Linger when the congregation leaves, and see if he shuts every door and window tight to keep in all the heat till evening service. Then see how thin the lamps burn in the vitiated air; how hard the minister tries to raise himself and his listeners to the height of some great argument, and how stupid they are—nothing but bad air. Now for the remedy, which costs labor and money both, for ventilation is a question of dollars and cents. Saturday, the sexton should be instructed to open all the doors and windows to let out all the dead and foul air, and let in such as is fresh. It takes no more coal on Sunday morning to heat

the church to 70 deg. because of this purification. Sunday noon, let the openings of the church be again thrown wide—warmth and bad air will alike disappear, and though extra coal may be required to raise the temperature, the minister will preach so much better in consequenee, and the hearers will listen with such increased relish to the sacred word, that the loss of the pocket will be infinitely compensated by the gain of the soul.

NOTHING LIKE GRAMMAR.—Nothing like grammar! Better go without a cow than go without that. There are numberless "professors" who go "tramp, tramp, tramp, my boys!" around the country, peddling a weak article, by which, "in twenty days," they guarantee to set a man thoroughly up in the English language. An instance in point comes from Greenville, Alabama, where a "professor" had taught them to dote on grammar according to "Morris" system. During one of the lectures, the sentence "Mary milks the cow," was given out to be parsed. Each word had been parsed save one, which fell to Bob L——, a sixteen-year old, near the foot of the class, who commenced thus: "Cow is a noun, feminine gender, singular number, third person, and *stands for Mary.*" "Stands for Mary!" said the excited professor. "How do you make that out?" "Because," answered the noble pupil, "if the cow didn't stand for Mary, *how could Mary milk her?*"

AN amusing incident occurred in one of the St. Albans stores the other day, in which a butcher figured as principal. It appears he had been reading the revolutionary document pertaining to the early history of Vermont, in which the trouble between New Hampshire and Vermont was explained, and the Governor's proclamation calling out the militia was published. He rushed into the store under great excitement and inquired what was all this fuss about, and when the militia were coming out, saying this was the first he had heard of it. He had not read the dates, which were 1770–76.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

STATE SCHOOL OFFICERS.

State.	Title.	Name.	Post Office.
Alabama..	Supt. Public Instruction..	Joseph Hodgson....	Montgomery.
Arkansas .	" " Schools	Thomas Smith.....	Little Rock.
California.	" " Instruction..	O. P. Fitzgerald....	San Francisco.
Conn.....	Sec. Bd. Education.....	B. G. Northrop....	New Haven.
Delaware .			
Florida....	Supt. Public Instruction..	Chas. K. Beecher...	Tallahassee.
Georgia...	School Commissioner.....	J. R. Lewis.....	Atlanta.
Illinois ...	Supt. Public Instruction..	Newton Bateman...	Springfield.
Indiana...	" " " ..	Milton B. Hopkins.	Indianapolis.
Iowa	" " " ..	A. S. Kissell.....	Des Moines.
Kansas ...	" " " ..	H. D. McCarty.....	Leavenworth.
Kentucky.	" " " ..	Z. F. Smith.....	Eminence.
Louisiana.	" " " ..	Thos. W. Conway...	New Orleans.
Maine	" Common Schools....	Warren Johnson...	Topsham.
Maryland.	Prin. State Normal Sch...	M. A. Newell.....	Baltimore.
Mass	Sec. Bd. Education.....	Joseph White.....	Boston.
Michigan .	Supt. Public Instruction..	Oramel Hosford....	Lansing.
Minnesota	" " " ..	H. B. Wilson	St. Paul.
Miss.....	" " Education..	Henry R. Pease....	Jackson.
Missouri..	" Public Schools.....	Ira Divoll.....	Jefferson City.
Nebraska .	" " Instruction..	S. D. Beals	Lincoln.
Nevada ...	" " " ..	A. N. Fisher.....	Carson City.
N. Hamp..	" " " ..	A. C. Hardy.....	Concord.
N. Jersey.	" " " ..	E. A. Apgar.....	Trenton.
New York.	" " " ..	Abram B. Weaver..	Albany.
N. Carolina	" " " ..	S. S. Ashley.....	Wilmington.
Ohio	Com'r Common Schools...	W. D. Henkle.....	Columbus.
Oregon ...	Supt. Public Instruction..	Geo. L. Wood.....	Salem.
Penn.....	" Common Schools...	J. P. Wickersham..	Millersville.
R. Island..	Com'r Public " ...	T. W. Bicknell.....	Providence.
S. Carolina	Supt. " Instruction..	J. K. Jillson.....	Camden.
Tennessee			
Texas.....			
Vermont..	Sec. Board of Education..	John H. French....	Burlington.
Virginia ..	Supt. Public Instruction..	Rev. W. H. Ruffner.	Richmond.
W. Va....	" Free Schools.....	Chas. S. Lewis.....	Charleston.
Wisconsin	" Public Instruction..	Samuel Fallows.....	Madison.

TERRITORIAL SCHOOL OFFICERS.

Colorado..	Supt. Public Instruction..	Columbus Nuckolls.	Central City.
Dakato ...	" " " ..	Jas. S. Foster.....	Yankton.
Idaho.....	" " " ..	Daniel Crane.....	Boise City.
Montana..	" " " ..	T. J. Campbell.....	Virginia City.
Indian....	Supt. Inst'c. Cherokee Na.	Spencer S. Stevens.	Tahlequah.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS are to convene in St. Louis, Mo., August 22d. We have seen no programme, and hence are unable to inform our readers what may be expected to be done.

MISSISSIPPI.—About three thousand Public Schools have been established under the present Common School system in Mississippi, during the past six months, with upwards of eighty thousand pupils under the tuition of nearly four thousand teachers. Taking into consideration the short period in which the School system has been in operation, and the vast amount of labor necessarily involved in effecting its organization, and that, too, under circumstances not the most favorable—a general Free School system, an untried experiment in Mississippi, without public sentiment favoring a fair trial even—having to contend with strong, deeply-rooted prejudices against it, arrayed, in many instances, in an open hostile opposition, together with an equal, if not greater obstacle—the indifference of a large and influential class in every community. In view of all this, the above statement presents a flattering exhibit of results. This is specially apparent when compared with other reconstructed States, and reflects great credit upon the zeal, earnestness, and efficiency of the officers connected with the State Department of Education.

TEXAS.—Gov. Davis reports a School population of 160,000 and over, the larger part of whom are without any educational advantages whatever. The Legislature failed to make an appropriation for Schools last session, and the governor hopes they will not repeat the error. The State has a permanent School fund of $2.575,000. To the income of this fund the poll-tax is to be added, and one-fourth of all the other taxes, making for the current year about half a million of dollars available for educational purposes.

MARYLAND.—The annual report of the Board of State School Commissioners of Maryland, furnishes the following statistics: Schools, 1,360; enrolled scholars, 77,454; scholars in attendance, 40,151; teachers, 1,664; of whom 972 are males, and 691 females; average number of teachers, 1,427; time schools were open nine months.

NEVADA.—The Governor, State Superintendent, and State Surveyor, are a State Board. Teachers are well paid, and long terms of school maintained. The average wages of male teachers being $125.59 per month, and of female

teachers, $97.98; while the average duration of the Schools is eight months and eighteen days. These figures are higher, the State Superintendent says, than in any other State in the Union. Nevada has, as yet, no Normal School, University, College, or Academy.

KANSAS.—It may be of interest to know that the Legislature of Kansas refused to pass the following: "SECTION I. That all corporal punishment, acts of violence, or personal indignities, on the part of the teachers toward any pupil in any common, graded, or other School of the State, is hereby prohibited; and any teacher violating this act shall be liable to punishment, according to law, in the same manner as if the relation of teacher and pupil did not exist."

MAINE.—Rev. Dr. Harris has resigned the position of President of the Bowdoin College at Brunswick, Me., and accepted a professorship in Yale College. It is expected that ex-Governor Chamberlain will succeed Dr. Harris as President of Bowdoin College.

GEORGIA.—The fifth annual meeting of the Georgia Teachers' Association held an interesting session in Columbus, May 2–5. Among those present who addressed the Association were J. M. Bonnell, D. D., Pres. Macon Wes. F. Col., on "the Object of the Society as held in the Constitution;" delivered in a concise and able manner. W. Ludden, of Savannah, on "Vocal Music in Schools." H. E. White, Columbus, O., "The Teacher's Inner Life." Altogether the meeting seems to have been one of profit.

THE Second Annual Convention of the German Teachers of the United States will be held in Cincinnati during the first week in August. The Convention in Louisville, Ky., last summer, did excellent work.

THE Legislature of Pennsylvania has enacted a law, making women over twenty-one years of age eligible to the office of School Director.

THE City of Syracuse has redeemed its pledge to the Syracuse University, and the bonds for one hundred thousand dollars are ordered issued.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

WE suspect that the ability to write Greek, good or bad, is to-day a rare accomplishment among the graduates of American Colleges. Not a few of them—we hope we are divulging no secret—would find themselves in a very tight place, if required to indite six lines in Latin, a tongue in which most of them are certainly more proficient than in Greek. But we are fain to think that matters are improving of late years. The Grammar is no longer middle and end, as well as beginning, of classical discipline. All good teachers now recognize the fact that the great end of learning a language is the use of it, as a means of communication, or as a key to the literature which it contains; not the grinding of gerunds or the parroting of periodical rules and exceptions. In many of our best schools the tyro is now set at composing in the language he would master, and so puts his acquisitions to immediate use. This method of beginning may be slower, but it is both more thorough and more practical than the one which has prevailed in this country so generally and so long. Helps to the writing of Latin are numerous, and some of them more than tolerably good; but the lack of a proper English-Greek dictionary, at once complete and scholarly, has been a serious obstacle in the way of Greek composition. This want no longer exists. Professor Drisler has fully met it in his lexicon.[1] It argues a firm faith in the utility and permanence of the system of classical culture, to edit and publish a work requiring such an outlay of labor and capital. One would imagine that the uproar raised by the scientists had been quite unheard within the walls of Columbia. Every page of the Lexicon bears abundant witness of patient and learned labor. We open at random and count twenty-seven additions by the American editor; a second opening gives twenty-two. For every word and signification the proper authority is cited, so that a glance enables us to distinguish early and late, or poetical

1 AN ENGLISH-GREEK LEXICON. By C. D. YONGE. With many New Articles, an Appendix of Proper Names, and Pillon's Greek Synonyms. To which is prefixed an Essay on the Order of Words in Attic Prose, by Charles Short, LL.D., Professor of Latin in Columbia College. EDITED BY HENRY DRISLER, LL.D., Professor of Greek in Columbia College, Editor of Liddell and Scott's Greek-English Lexicon, etc., etc. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1870.

and prose, usage. Professor Short's Essay prefixed to the Lexicon, contains one hundred closely packed pages, and is an immense repository of examples illustrative of the arrangement of words in Greek prose, an exhaustive collection of answers to all the questions the young Grecian can ask on the subject, and a store-house for future grammarians to draw from. But the book would be worth its full price to the instructor in Greek, if it contained nothing but Pillon's collection of Greek Synonyms [edited, with notes, by Rev. T. K. Arnold]. Of such a treatise, every one able to appreciate the language at all must often have felt the need; and must, we are sure, have been at a loss how to supply it. The partial works of Tittman and French, while valuable to the student of the New Testament, are altogether inadequate to the wants of one who would possess himself of the nice distinctions and carefully-shaded meanings in which the Dialogues of Plato, for instance, abound. We could wish that our teachers of Greek would give this treatise a place on their study-tables beside the grammar and lexicon. If not quite all that could be desired, it is yet the best work on the subject known to us.

WHITE'S Arithmetics[2] are to be reckoned among our best text-books in numbers. Their special features are: the constant combination of oral and written arithmetic; the concise statement of processes in formulas easy to remember; the formal exhibition of principles; and the postponing of both principles and rules to the very close of each subject. The inductive method is conscientiously followed. Mr. White's grammatical illustrations of Square and Cube Root are in some sort new, and, to our mind, better suited to the capacity of the young arithmetician than the algebraic methods found in some recent books. Per centage is fully treated, and the whole series is well calculated to make practical arithmeticians. The author's language is noticeable for its conciseness and correctness,—no unimportant point. Paper, print and illustrations are good.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS are doing good service to

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2 WHITE'S GRADED SCHOOL SERIES of Arithmetics. *Primary*, 144 pp., 16mo.; *Intermediate*, 192 pp., 16mo.; *Complete*, 320 pp., 12mo. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinckle & Co.

the cause of "Science for the Young," in their recent volume on "Heat," by Jacob Abbott. The book is well illustrated, and will give substantial instruction in the fundamental principles of its subject. It is written in narrative form, and will be found fascinating as well as profitable. The same house has just published Albert Barnes' "Notes on the Epistle to the Romans." Also, Dr. Smith's "Smaller Scripture History," and Miss Muloch's "Head of the Family," a novel. To their "Library of Select Novels" they have added "A Life's Assize," by Mrs. Riddell.

MESSRS. WILSON, HINKLE & CO., Educational Publishers, Cincinnati, have just issued "A Rhetorical Reader, for Class Drill and private instruction in Elocution," by Prof. Robert Kidd. This work has some new and interesting features, and is well worthy the attention of teachers and others.

THE AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION have issued a handy and useful pamphlet entitled, "Free Public Libraries:" suggestions on their foundation and administration, with a selected list of books.

THE TRUSTEES OF RUTGERS COLLEGE (New Brunswick, N. J.) have published a very handsome pamphlet of about a hundred pages, entitled "Centennial Celebration of Rutgers College, June 21, 1871, with an Historical Discourse, delivered by Hon. Joseph P. Bradley, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, U. S., and other Addresses and Proceedings. It is worthy of perusal and of preservation.

THE NEW ENGLANDER for April, contains: Winthrop and Emerson on Forefathers' Day; The Sign Language; Professor Fitch; A Long Range Shot; Richard Grant White on Words and their Uses; Yale College—some Thoughts respecting its Future; many notices of new books.

AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MICROSCOPY. The first number has just appeared. It is devoted to the education of scientific and popular microscopy. Dr. E. M. Hale, Editor. G. Mead & Co., Chicago, Publishers.

THE AMERICAN NATURALIST, for May, is a good number. Its "Natural History Miscellany" is specially full and interesting. This Magazine is doing a good work in the cause of popular science.

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

Soule's Dictionary of Synonymes.

A Dictionary of English Synonymes, and Synonymous or Parallel Expressions; designed as a Practical Guide to Aptness and Variety of Phraseology.

By RICHARD SOULE.

CROWN, 8VO., CLOTH, $2.00. 8VO., CLOTH, $2.50.

Sent, post-paid, on receipt of the price, by LITTLE, BROWN & CO., Publishers, Boston.

Henry Carey Baird has, for many years, devoted himself exclusively to the publication of *Industrial* Literature, including THE *Works of Dr. Carey* on SOCIAL SCIENCE. He has now a more extensive and more varied list of Books of this character than any other publisher in this country or Great Britain, so that it is almost impossible to demand a treatise on any leading industrial interest which he cannot supply. He has recently issued, *for gratuitous distribution*, for the advancement of a vital and important branch of education, which is daily attracting more and more attention—Prof. Trowbridge's Inaugural Address at the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College—"THE PROFESSION OF THE MECHANICAL OR DYNAMICAL ENGINEER." This paper, together with Mr. Baird's CATALOGUE OF PRACTICAL AND SCIENTIFIC BOOKS, will be sent free of postage to any one who will send his address to HENRY CAREY BAIRD, Industrial Publisher, 406 Walnut St., Philadelphia.

Messrs. Cowperthwait & Co., Philadelphia, among the very largest publishers in the country of educational text-books, have in preparation *Monroe's Series of School Readers*, in five books, profusely illustrated by the best artists, and to be issued in the best style of mechanical execution. Their editor, Prof. Lewis B. Monroe, is Superintendent of Physical and Vocal Culture in the Public Schools of Boston. *Vocal Gymnastics*, a new work on physical and vocal training, by the same author, has won the highest encomiums from such authorities as the Rev. Wm. R. Alger, Boston, and is in use in the schools of Philadelphia, Boston, and many other chief cities. *Hagar's Arithmetical Series*, by D. B. Hagar, Principal of the Massachusetts' State Normal School, is in press. It comprises three numbers, and is handsomely illustrated. The two first books will be ready soon. *Warren's Geographies, Greene's Grammars, Potter & Hammond's Series of Penmanship*, and of *Book-Keeping*, and *Leache's Complete Spelling-Book*, are known favorites, and are sold in immense quantities.

J. A. Bancroft & Co., Philadelphia, have published *My First Drawing Book*, for Slate Exercises. No paper, lead pencil or rubber needed. A work long wanted for instruction in drawing on the slate, embracing straight and curved lines, capital and script letters, numerals, familiar objects, animals, etc., with full page of instruction opposite each plate, for pupil and teacher. Price, by mail, 40 cents. Liberal deduction for the supply of classes. *Step by Step; or, The Child's First Lesson Book.* A beautifully illustrated little work, consisting of graduated lessons from A, B, C, to spelling and reading. Price, sent per mail, pre-paid, 25 cents. *New School Mottoes.* The set consists of twelve handsome colored cards, containing twenty different and appropriate mottoes to be hung in the school room. They will be found an ornament as well as a valuable aid to the teacher. Per set, per mail, pre-paid, 75 cents.

Charles Desilver, 1229 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, supplies not only his own Books, but also the publications of all other houses, in books for the old, books for the young, books for clergymen, books for physicians, books for lawyers, books for teachers, books for merchants, books for mechanics, books for farmers, books for children, books for everybody, all the new books as soon as published.

Messrs. Porter & Coates, 822 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, have published *The Young American Speaker*, by J. R. Sypher; *The American Popular Speaker*, by J. R. Sypher; *The Comprehensive Speaker*, by H. T. Coates. Circulars, with prices and testimonials, will be mailed on application.

Messrs. P. Garrett & Co., 702 Chestnut St, Philadelphia, have recently issued the third number of their "100 Choice Selection" Series. These books contain the best things for declamations and recitations, both in prose and verse, being suited for either public or parlor reading. Each volume is complete in itself; while the three form a perfect little library of gems that ought to be in the possession of every one who has a taste for literature.

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The same Publishers also offer "Excelsior Dialogues," for the use of Exhibition-rooms and private theatricals. New, spicy, and original. Just the book for the times. Revised edition, cloth, nearly 400 pages—price, $1.25.

Messrs. James R. Osgood & Co., of Boston, have, since January, published—Prof. Lowell's charming series of essays, "My Study Windows," which every teacher should read; Mr. Barry's excellent little book, "How to Draw;" Dr. Holmes's characteristic Address on "Mechanism in Thought and Morals;" the "Life of "William Winston Seaton," which has been termed "an American Diary of Crabb Robinson;" Miss Kate Field's graphic "Pen Photographs of Dickens's Readings;" Mr. Parton's pertinent "Topics of the Times;" Miss Phelps's powerful and touching story of "The Silent Partner;" the second and concluding part of Goethe's Faust in Bayard Taylor's superb translation; "Success and its Conditions," a new volume; "Literature and Life," a volume partly new, and new editions of the volumes previously published, by E. P. Whipple, the distinguished essayist and critic; and "John Woolman's Journal," with a charming Introduction by John G. Whittier.

A. Williams & Co., 135 Washington St., Boston, Mass., are dealers in STAND-

ARD BOSTON MADE GLOBES. They are the Special Agents for these Globes, and keep constantly on hand a full assortment, which will be sold to colleges, schools and individuals at low prices. Being securely packed, they can be safely transported to any distance. They consist of all the usual sizes. *They are Special Agents for Harper & Bros. Educational Publications.*

John L. Shorey, 36 Bromfield St., Boston, is the Publisher of "Sargent's Readers and Spellers:" "The Nursery: an Illustrated Monthly Magazine, for young readers."

Melton Bradley & Co., Springfield, Mass., announce a pamphlet entitled "Kindergarten Culture:" a succinct exposé of Friedrich Frœbel's educational principles in connection with the Kindergarten, describing all its means of occupation in their logical connection with one another; showing their use and pointing out the resulting development which may be expected if they are properly employed. By Edward Niebe, author of "Paradise of Childhood," a practical guide to "Kindergartens," etc.

This pamphlet, originally intended as a lecture, is published at the solicitation of the most earnest "Kindergarten" workers in the country.

Miss Peabody says of it: "It contains more of the philosophy of the 'Kindergarten,' than I thought could be put upon paper." Price, by mail, 10 cents.

John Wiley & Son, Astor Place, New York, publish valuable and practical works on—Agriculture, Architecture, Assaying, Astronomy, Book-keeping, Carpentry, Chemistry, Organic, Inorganic, and Analytical, Chemical Physics, Clock and Watch-making, Cotton manufacture, Descriptive Geometry, Drawing and Perspective, Dyeing, Engineering, Civil and Military; Engineering and Mechanical Drawing, Fortification, Field and Permanent; Fortification Drawing and Stone-cutting, Mechanics of Engineering and Architecture, Metallurgy, Mineralogy, Saw-filing, Ship-Building, Turning, Ventilation, Water-wheels, etc.

Their Catalogue contains a full list of Scientific works, English and American, and will be sent gratis to any address.

Dodd & Mead, 762 Broadway, New York, are about to publish religious novels. "The American Cardinal" is written by an Episcopal clergyman of note, who will remain anonymous. The plot is laid in the time of the great rebellion, and turns on an incident transferred from the life of Archbishop Manning, who obtained a dispensation from the Pope, separating him from his wife, that he might enter the Roman Catholic priesthood. The novel will attract great attention and lead to much discussion.—*New York Evening Mail.*

G. P. Putnam & Sons, Publishers, Booksellers and Stationers, Y. M. C. A. Building, 4th Avenue and 23d St. *School Books supplied. Books imported to order.*

Hurd & Houghton, Publishers, and Booksellers, 13 Astor Place, and 136 Eighth St. (a few doors east of Broadway), New York. The Riverside Press, H. O. Houghton & Co., Proprietors, Cambridge, Mass.

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Of the ten Abridgments, most of them have been republished in England, and several have a very large sale there. One has on its title-page, "seventy-fifth thousand." Over sixty tons of paper are annually employed in the manufacture of the Abridgments in this country, aggregating 1,160,000 sheets of paper, which, spread out singly, would cover forty square miles. They are found in almost every school-house in the land. Two hundred to three hundred tons of paper are now used annually in the preparation of the Webster books, Speller included. A careful estimate gives the enormous quantity of 17 047,100 pounds of paper, as the quantity used in the manufacture of all the Webster books, from the commencement, or 8,523 tons. The volumes made from this must have been sufficient to form a pile of hardly less magnitude than the great pyramid of Egypt.

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Over three hundred thousand sheep have been divested of their skins to cover these books.

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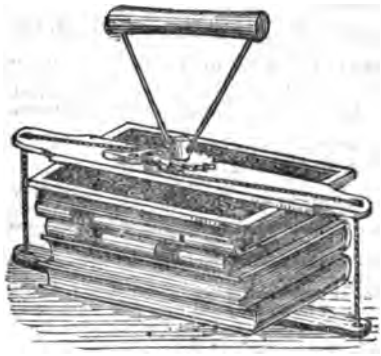

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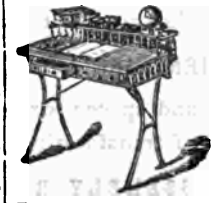

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Economy of cost and space; strength and simplicity of construction; ease and rapidity of transforming a School room full of Desks into an

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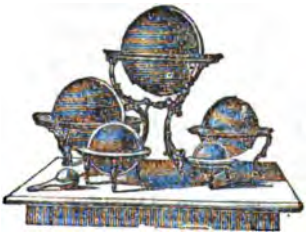

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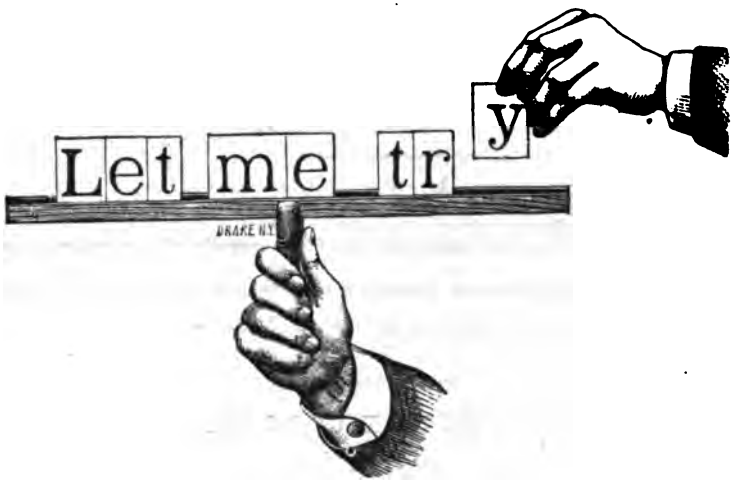

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AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

JULY, 1871.

A DUTCHMAN'S SPEECH AT A TEACHERS' MEETING.

SIR Edward Templerow, with whom Steven Von Brammelendam was staying for a couple of days, was chairman of the "Society for training School Teachers." Of course he invited him to attend the meeting of the society. As Steven took a lively interest in everything connected with schools, the invitation was very welcome to him. He even promised to give an address, and, to be able to do so, kept his room all day to write his speech. At half-past seven Sir Edward came to tell him that the gig was at the door. Steven had never heard the word "gig" before, but he guessed it must be a conveyance. He got a place by Sir Edward's side, on the platform, and after some business was gone through, "the friend from Holland" was summoned to address the meeting.

"Dear friends," he said, "when I rode through the streets in the wig of your chairman——"

Poor Steven! he could not proceed. An uproarious burst of laughter drowned his voice. He took it with the best possible humor, though, and patiently waited till the people, both on and around the platform, had recovered. Meanwhile Sir Edward, amid much chuckling, explained to him, in a whispered tone, the cause of this unexpected but amus-

ing disturbance; and when the noise had subsided Steven thus proceeded:

"When I rode through the streets of your giant-like town [applause], and when I saw the many churches which heave their towers up stairs [laughter], I thought the English are a very churchical people [great laughter]. I therefore wonder not that you also are an educational people, for religion is the mother of education, and where there are many churches there we may expect that there are also many schools."

Here Steven could annex his written speech, which he then read as follows:

"But schools are not the unique thing which is necessary for a good education. The great requisite is to have understanding schoolmasters, who are not principleless, as many, alas! are, but who go out from the true beginning. A good school building with a bad schoolmaster, is equal to a fine coach with a drunken coachman [laughter]. Some schoolmasters give the children too little. They neglect them, as if our children were but monkeys, walking on their behind legs [uproarious laughter]. No, our children are not monkeys, but such schoolmasters are donkeys. Others give to the children too much. They endeavor to make professors of them. They endeavor to replenish their little heads with the inkeepings of the whole universe. They will make famous astronomers of them, and climb up with them up stairs, far beyond sun and moon, and still abover [loud laughter]. Or they will make learned geologists of them, and valley with them down stairs, into the bowels of the earth, or still belower. But this is perverted [laughter]. When we communicate knowledge to men we must be prudent, as we are in giving them natural food. We give roast beef and entries to great people, but we feed our babies with poultice [uproarious laughter]. Just so we must make our teaching stuff for children so low that it falls under their childish comprehension. Schoolmasters must not stand among the little fellows like Goliath among the Philistines. They must know how, as it were, to squat down by their side, and thus teach them as if they were their ancienter brothers [laughter]. Teachers who refuse thus to humble themselves, bereave the

children of great before-parts [renewed laughter]. It exhilarates me to learn that your society fosters the same feelings as I do with relation to this weighty object. I hope that you will find many low young men, who stick out by humility as well as by ability. I hope that your schools will more and more be illustrious spectacles for the eye of the nation, spectacles of order, of discipline, and solid instruction, and of many other useful proprieties and predicaments. I hope that your schools will more and more be the wet nurses of great men, so that whole Europe, looking at the English people, shall be pulled up in stupefaction at the bigness of this nation" [great applause.]

Here Steven Van Brammelendam sat down amid deafening applause.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER XI.

WHEN Wülfing, followed by one attendant, arrived that night at the Wolfshalde, he saw with great grief what arrangements had been made by the different owners of the chase to stop the poachers from future encroachments on their pleasures. The moon had risen, and the different members of the expedition were assigned their posts. The spot that was chosen was the place where salt was strewn for giving "a lick" to the deer, generally called "Salzlecke." As the deer were wont to congregate at this place in the beginning of the night, it was probable that the poachers would attempt here their encroachments. Soon the deer made their appearance with their antlers towering over their heads; they kept themselves in the shade, avoiding the light of the moon which seemed to frighten them by the reflection of their own forms. Now they sipped and licked the salty fluid with

which the place was impregnated. Soon their pugnacity was excited. Their antlers began to cross. Still there was none of those furious battles which oftentimes are fought like duels among the deer, when the non-combatants surround them like umpires of the struggle. Soon a stir was heard in the direction of the Wäbicht, an old nursery, now grown into an impenetrable thicket. Directly the poachers were seen to emerge from that part of the forest, having with them carts for conveying the slain deer. The first report was heard, and a magnificent Achtender, or deer with eight antlers, fell to the ground, hit by the fatal lead. Bartel was the marksman. All recognized the poacher, and then Hennenhöft also was seen—the master of the wood among its plunderers. Silently the members of the expedition left their standpoints to surround the Salzlecke, and cut off the retreat of the poaching party towards the Wäbicht: for pursuit in that part of the forest was impossible. Soon the combat opened. Several reports were heard. Wülfing, as soon as he had recognized Hennenhöft, remained behind with Mr. Anbelang. He felt as if his feet were tied to the ground; but the shouting of the combatants stirred him up. When he approached the scene, he saw that all was over; some were fleeing, others were captured. Before him lay Hennenhöft in his blood.

He still recognized his comrade. The unfortunate man convulsively pointed with his uplifted hand towards the rattling chest. He tried to speak. Smothered curses moved his lips, which soon became rigid and stiff. "Countess—child—son"—these were the words of terror ejaculated by Hennenhöft. The arm of the dying man was stretched out to point at the distance. "Not America," was the last articulated sound that Wülfing comprehended. A wailing smothered the words of the wretch, a sound as if he felt a peculiar terror or despair at something unfinished. The dying man tried to raise himself up. Wülfing assisted him, but he rolled on the ground, his hand groping at his breast. Wülfing's hands felt a key. He seized it together with Hennenhöft's purse.

Hennenhöft was dead. The gens d'armes shackled the prisoners, among whom was Bartel's wife, who had been arrested on the cart. Nobody was surprised that Wülfing had

withdrawn in haste, leaving to the others the transporting of the dead man and the prisoners.

"Countess—child—son—not America," was the echo repeated to him by every leaf as he staggered along. He clutched the key and the purse, as if they were instruments of divine wrath. He tottered. His feet usually so sure, slipped at places which were well-known to him. Now he saw beasts of prey, martens, pole-cats—the natural enemies of huntsmen—but he could not stop to shoot them, not even to note the places where they disappeared behind the mossy rocks. The moon was concealed by the clouds. A storm was threatening. The leaves around him were moved by the wind, and nature was aroused from her slumber. Was it the terror of his conscience that hurried him so rapidly along? Must he call himself Hennenhöft's murderer? Such thoughts grinned at him like teeth in the mouths of sneering devils. Did not the bullets that forever silenced Hennenhöft answer his own interest? These reproaches of his own heart triumphed over him. Halloh! what sound was that? That was the wild huntsman [1] who, with his retinue, on neighing horse-skeletons, with cracking whips and discordant horns, was riding through the forest. He first seemed to keep steadily behind Wülfing; who felt as if drawn backward, and pressed with bony arms to everlasting perdition.

But his night's mission was accomplished in spite of all. He reached the abode of the wood-ward. Two powerful dogs were tearing at their chains. Their howling seemed a wail for their dead master, whose blood they probably smelt on Wülfing's clothes. Two kennels protected them from the rain which the hunter did not feel. Now he had to descend. His eyes and his feet found the right way. There were the long sheds for the bark, intended for the next auction. There were the long roofs under which the charcoal was piled up. At the right and at the left he had to walk through black cinders and scraps of tan-bark. There was a barn for the cones of pines. Then came the little house, half underground. Behind it an open staircase led to the ruins of the old convent. The settlement was entirely bare of tenants. The workmen lived dispersed in

1 The legend of the wild huntsman is familiar in many mountainous districts of Germany. It is a relic of Paganism, and the wild huntsman has, in all these legends, the attributes of Satan

the forest and in the neighboring hamlets, and came to the place at sunrise. Wülfing was driven on as by a mysterious voice. He stepped to the house and the latch yielded. The house had been open! There could be no mysteries.

A cat with fiery eyes met him. He struck a light, for which a huntsman in the forest always carries the necessary articles. He found a lantern which he lighted. All was still. The closets were open. He returned to the street-door, and tried the key which he had taken from Hennenhöft. It did not fit. Why had the dying man snatched at this key? He tried it at the kitchen door and at the bedroom; it fitted neither. Being perplexed, he stepped out of doors. To what door could that key belong? He thought of the purse. In it there were two small keys and some money. Where did these keys belong? Nowhere did he see locked closets. He groped at the walls and opened out all drawers. He found papers, but they contained nothing except official accounts. His eye fell on a bag in the kitchen. It was the bread-bag, which Hennenhöft was in the habit of filling at the bakery, and carrying to his house. There was bread for more than one person. He felt himself exhausted and sat down on a stool. A bird, in its half open cage, was stirred up by the light. It fluttered anxiously about, and began to warble a tune as if mistaken in the time. It was a blue thrush, rare in that part of the country, and trained for certain melodies. A clock struck three; the bird tried to reply to the sound, but failed in the attempt. The rain struck the windows. No streak of light announced yet the break of morning. When Wülfing again opened the door, he noticed that the cat sprang outside in spite of the rain, of which no animal is more afraid. It jumped upon a height behind the house, and disappeared in the dark. Wülfing with his lantern and keys followed. He discovered a rickety staircase which led upward to a barn. On the left was a beaten track through the grass, up a little hill. He took this path, and found that the way continued over the roofs of sheds. Having passed over these, he was arrested by a cut which on the other side showed the ruins of the old convent. Having jumped over this and followed a path over stones and rubbish, he stood before a door which he found to be locked.

He tried the large key and it unlocked the door. Upon opening it he started back. There was utter darkness, a toad hopped over his foot. The air was damp and mouldy. By the light of the lantern he saw that the inner room was empty. There was a spiral stair-case in the back-ground, leading downward. After having descended more than twelve steps, he came into a spacious room, paved with brick. Here a large chest attracted his attention. He tried one of the smaller keys, and it fitted. Having opened it, he believed himself to be at the end of his expedition. He found a number of papers, carefully folded, and lying in a pile. He took them up, and put them into his hunting pouch. His eyes fell on a great number of small glasses and boxes, bearing druggists' labels, part of the former still containing liquids, and part of the latter, powders. The marks on the different labels showed that the contents must be medicines. But for whom were they intended? And why were they so concealed? A glance was sufficient to show that several of the labels bore the names of distant cities, and that the dates went back ten years. His surprise was greatly increased by the discovery of money in the upper drawers of the chest. There were State stocks and rolls of hard coin. He opened one, which contained sovereigns and napoleons. But the maximum of his discoveries had not been reached. The last key had not served him yet.

He observed a door, at the right of the stairs. He tried the key,—the door opened. All was still. Gradually his hand gained the necessary strength to lift the lantern. By its light he saw—a human being lying on straw, and tied to a block of wood. He could not yet distinguish whether it was a child, or a youth; but it had a face of deadly paleness, and was—breathing. Appalled as he was, he was obliged to sit down on the floor. There was no chair or stool in the room. He saw only a jar with water, some toys, little horses of varnished wood with patches of silk. He stretched out his hand to awake the boy, for such the figure seemed to be, but withdrew it again; he was afraid to interrupt his sleep. The cell was no larger than ten feet square, and not five feet high. At the ceiling he noticed an opening for air. There was no trace of stove or table. A leather cord fastened to the wooden block was lost under

the cover which enveloped the sleeping creature. Probably the cord went round the body of the prisoner, and hindered him in his movements.

Wülfing had now to give up all hope of keeping in his hands the reins of fate. To continue concealing the misdeed committed was out of the question. Fate must take its course. He easily perceived that Hennenhöft had not sent Countess Jadwiga's son to America; nor had he, as it was rumored, given the new-born child to emigrants in a French seaport. Perhaps he had intended to murder the boy, but afterward had allowed him to grow up in some distant place. Then he had placed him here, and fed him like a beast, perhaps from fear, perhaps to show his gratitude, as did I (so thought Wülfing) and my unfortunate wife. What will she say, when this intelligence comes to our cottage, and is made known to the world!

Wülfing did not awake the youth; but in great agitation arose, closed the chest, and slunk back to the abodes of men who, though more ruthless than beasts of prey, still call themselves God's images. The day was just breaking in the upper world. Rain was falling. He returned to the house of the murderer, the double murderer, for Hennenhöft had murdered both body and soul. Without Wülfing's search the boy must have perished for want of food. For hours he sat weeping, with his head leaning on his arm. Once more he slunk back to the subterranean abode, guarded by angels. The youth was still sleeping. He put his hand on his limbs. They felt soft and relaxed. A happy smile, as if reflected from a beautiful dream, was diffused over the features of the poor, unhappy being. But a dream? What experience of HIS life could appear to him as a dream? He was robbed of his human rights from the first dawn of life! He could not know the world; no recollections were his; his dreams could be only of his little wooden horses!

At length, towards the ninth hour, the Judicial Commission arrived at the dwelling. Wülfing reported to the members all he had discovered. He handed the key to Mr. Anbelang, and tottered towards his own home. The members of the Commission descended to the dungeon; they found the money, the glasses, the vessels, and at last a weep-

ing human being, who was hiding from the light of day to which they carried him. Hennenhöft's atrocious crime was placed beyond doubt, but the question to whom the miserable victim belonged, was enveloped in darkness.

When Lienhard saw the youth he said to his father: O father, this boy must be mine! He is a being of uncorrupted nature—a blank tablet, not yet defiled by the confused handwriting of life and the prejudices of thousands of years. I shall educate him to be a model to mankind—to the glory of Bacon, Rousseau, Pestalozzi—O heavenly, eternal light, give me thy blessing for this work. I desire no more! Keep your worldly goods, dear father! I have gained something better,—a budding soul, a pure, unsullied being, not yet poisoned by life, school, state, house, society. I shall educate this being to become my ideal of MAN.

SUBURBAN SAUNTERINGS.

I HAVE my doubts about the fitness of this title. A sauntering gait I never choose except on compulsion, and I find it the most tedious of all. My natural pace, up hill and down dale, is one hundred and twenty-two steps to the minute, or thereabouts; say, four miles an hour without relaxing. But my country walking is rapid for another rea son: the want of crossroads compels me, in my favorite excursions, to achieve a certain number of miles in the shortest time practicable; and as I become more familiar with the neighborhood, I must needs go further and further for freshness of scenery. However, let the title stand for want of a better, and let me be permitted to make some extracts from the journal in which my out-door life is recorded.

February 7, 1869.—The mountain from which all my excursions begin, is a long range, of even height, running nearly north and south. This morning, on crossing the summit at sunrise, I notice that the clouds in the western hemisphere converge, as if to a luminary on that horizon, and meet in the zenith to form a lozenge with the cloud rays coming from the east.

February 20, 1870.—A much more remarkable cloud phenomenon. The sun is fairly up—perhaps two diameters above the horizon—the sky a dull, hazy white. A solitary ball of vapor, warmed into smoke color, floats above between me and the sun, a little southward. It is so dense that it cuts off the sun's rays by rectilinear lines, as if a solid body, and casts a dark blue shadow against the paleness of the sky. I can liken the appearance to nothing so much as to a comet. The shadow and the ball lasted but a few moments after they were first observed. The waning moon was still visible, and surrounded by vapor.

March 1, 1868.—A forenoon walk. Snow on all the roads and fields. This steep way must have seen a load of hay pass yesterday. On the short curves the snow is smoothed and scratched much as the stones along the Mohawk, at Little Falls, N. Y., have been worn by the water that once burst its barrier at that wonderful place. On the great rock yonder, beside the brook, I distinguish mosses that are pale green, pink, and brick color; the north end red, and very bright. A German beldam, washing her face at the corner of the shanty in which she lives, is scolding her little grandson in accents more resembling those of a fowl than of a human being. The Germans love these slopes and valleys between the ridges, often not so dissimilar, I fancy, to the ever dear *Thal* of the Fatherland. One may pick out their cottages in this region infallibly by the grapevine trellis beside the door. Here, for instance, lives Henry Müller, advertising by a rude sign that his house and seven "akers" are for sale. Not much, in truth, can be said for this estate, except that it commands superb views south and westward. From his back windows Müller may look on a fold of the broad back of this mountain—a subordinate valley, with dark brown cedars running down into and among deciduous trees at the bottom, whose pale, bare stems and branches seem like mist rising up at the sun's command. Now we have reached the deep drifts of an unfrequented road, and a tan colored dog, seeing our plight, has come out to worry us. He follows us maliciously in the rear till we near the extreme limit of his master's protection; then the sly fellow runs in front of us and turns as if to dispute our progress.

That is his last card, and he skulks home again; though doubtless he calls it retiring with honor. In the valley again, we pass a school house opposite a noble row of elms, from which the wind has dislodged an empty bird's nest. On the roof lies a brick that has fallen from the chimney, with sundry sticks beside it, probably thrown after it to bring it down. Within one sees white curtains, and on a Sunday hears singing, as the country people meet to worship here, and so save the house from the dilapidation common to its kind. Leaving, as we ascend, the symbol of public instruction, we meet that of licensed vice in the beer saloon yonder, whose stones have more color in them than a toper's nose. Our walk ends amid the pleasant odor of new felled timber.

April 1, 1868.—Many are the signs of spring. About this time a man's pockets begin to tear out before he is ready to cast off his winter suit, and he loses pennies and toothpicks, pencils and ferry tickets, in the linings of his vest, and letters and handkerchiefs in the linings of his coat. The horses and cattle break loose from their stalls and play havoc with the garden and the soft lawn; there is brush-burning on all the hills; in the river the shad poles are set, and have been, perhaps, from the 19th of March—the sight of the boatmen who set them is as picturesque as any scene in Venice. Wild flowers we seldom find here earlier than April. Hepaticas and anemones I have met as early as the tenth; saxifrage, perhaps, a trifle sooner.

May 11, 1868.—The maple leaves are born as they die, in rich colors. The beeches, tulip poplars, birches, and dogwoods are leafing out in the neighboring ravines—those nearest the stream being most advanced. The beech is gradually supplanting the other trees, not without a recompense. In fact, nothing can be more delicious than the green and the straight horizontal lines of its foliage, when the sun shines through it. No tree, with us, is so tenacious of its leaves, the oak not excepted. They hang on, not a few of them, till the new buds swell and their successors put forth. This handsome young tree by the house, that some domestic Board of Health will one day order down, not only because it has pushed into the hickory that stands next it, but grazes

the house itself with its lower limbs, has a bleached winter look that is very charming to me. From my bedroom as I rise I watch its outlines against the sky and against the background of turf and evergreens; and I have been struck with the fact that against a blue-black sky the branches show dark, while against the yellow, dead grass at their feet all their whiteness shows out; proving that the light of the sky is not to be measured by its color at any given time. But this observation is chiefly for the artist. He, also, will most care to learn of a phenomenon of a different class, which, indeed, is common enough, but not always noticed. I first remarked it in May, as it happened. On an east and west road, running through a tolerably deep cutting, the smoke from a cottage on the north side is naturally blown south by a bold wind from the north, while the dust raised by the carriage in the road below, is blown northward, i. e., towards the cottage, by the same current. Of course it has been deflected by the houses on the opposite, or south side. In New York I have seen, at nightfall, a similar and rather picturesque contrast in direction between the smoke of a chimney and that of a tar heap on the cobblestones, say fifty feet below. No one can walk Broadway and escape the dust without heeding this simple principle, and taking the side of the street *opposite* the prevailing wind. On the North River the effects on the smoke or steam of vessels by their motion and of the wind combined, afford a curious study. I saw, on one occasion, two tugs going in the *same* direction, and only a few yards from each other, whose steam was blown in exactly opposite directions; but this I have never been able to explain.

June 16, 1868.—A dense fog prevailing, the increase in the wood odors is quite remarkable.

P. CHAMITE.

UPON the wall of a classroom, in the University of Edinburgh, the late Sir William Hamilton left the following words: "There is nothing great on earth but man; there is nothing great in man but mind."

FICTION AS AN EDUCATOR.

THE most striking conjunction of favorable circumstances for intellectual education is seen where severe study imparts the strength essential to the forcible development of ideas, and gives vigor to the mind's conceptions, yet leaves leisure and opportunity in the season of "unperilous choice" for the due working and entertainment of happy accidents; infusing new images through the medium of pleasure, the more delightful from an experience of task-work and labor imposed. The intellect labors still, but it rejoices even in a strain to full tension, exacted neither by duty nor teacher's will, but by curiosity catching a glimpse of what life may be, and what the world offers, to its choicer spirits. Where to these is added the excitement of stirring times, and the clash and conflict of great interests, we recognize the circumstances under which Milton's genius developed itself, and later on the school of our Lake poets. Sometimes great political events are sufficient of themselves to give the stimulus to childhood, providing they are viewed from a sufficient distance, and are absolutely removed from personal participation. In times of great wars, great tragedies, great discoveries, vast social changes, indelible impressions are made on the minds of children, who hear of them as they hear a fairy tale, or the things that happened once upon a time. We see such an influence telling on the little Bronté children, in their remote seclusion, who lived in a permanent excitement about the Duke of Wellington, and used to invent stories, of which the Marquess of Douro was the hero. But infancy rarely gets the proper ring of these public stimulants. In wealthy, well-regulated households the children are in the nursery when telegrams bring their startling news, and the paper at the breakfast-table tells of the hero falling in battle, of great cities besieged, of new lands discovered, the earth's treasures brought to light, kings dethroned, emperors taken captive, and a nation's joy suddenly turned to mourning. Therefore, still to prefigure the turns and shocks of fate—the deeper emotions of manhood—and to prepare heart and soul for their keen recep-

tion and eloquent portrayal, must infancy be fed on fictitious wonders, joys, and sorrows, and so learn the difference between life as the mass use and treat it, and life in its nobleness, its fascinations, its capabilities; thus providing it with a pictured experience and standard of comparison.

As the world goes, however, it is not only that the child is out of sight of excitements, but that the excitements of common life are small and piecemeal; intolerable to eager expectation, if this be really all. Life is rarely seen in picturesque circumstances; where it is, doubtless it makes a deep impression. Any disinterested emotion from public events leaves an indelible mark on the memory of childhood. To find mamma crying "because they have cut the Queen of France's head off," was an intellectual stimulus of the noblest sort for little girls fourscore years ago, but one which does not often come in the way of our little girls. We old folks cannot regret the humdrum exterior of our insular existence (if in the painful—we trust it may also be passing—excitement of fierce war between neighbor nations if we may use the expression), knowing that emotion means discomfort and worse. We are content that the infant should establish it as an axiom that grown-up people do not cry, nor allow themselves in any turbid irregularities. It is well that joys and griefs should hide their disorder from young eyes troublesomely inquisitive in such matters, and treasuring up in memory every abnormal display of passion as something rare and startling—if seen, that is, under dignified or elevating circumstances, for the excesses of ill-temper are not what we mean. Not the less is it part of a really liberal education to know of such things with realizing power; one, we assert, which fiction can alone adequately perform. History tells of great sorrows and great successes, but it is only poetry and fancy that can make them felt. It was the old woman's stories, listened to by Burns—she who had the largest, wildest collection in the whole country, of tales and songs about witches, apparitions, giants, enchanted towers, and dragons—that enlarged his imagination for the reception of heroic fact, and made reading the lives of Hannibal and William Wallace such an epoch. History of itself, eagerly apprehended in childhood, ministers to personal

ambition; and premature ambition does not, we think, lead to the fulfilment of its hopes. The boy who devours Plutarch's lives of great men hopes to rival them. Fiction proper induces dreams, it may be, of personal aggrandizement, but it more naturally sets the child upon weaving tales of his own, in which self is forgotten.

But if works of fancy perform such wonders on the masculine mind—if to it men of genius trace their first consciousness of thought, the beginning of their present selves—much more is this the case with women. If women, learning fact in a slipshod, inaccurate, unattractive way, are at the same time cut off from fiction, as by some strict, scrupulous teachers they are, where is the wonder if their interests and intellect alike stand at a low level? Miss Thackeray's sleeping beauty, before the awakener comes, personates with little exaggeration the mental famine in which some girls grow up to meagre womanhood, learning dull lessons, practising stock-pieces, hearing only drowsy family talk of "hurdles and pump-handles," and adding their quota to the barren discourse, like Cecilia in the story, with, "Mamma, we saw ever so many slugs in the laurel walk—didn't we, Maria? I think there are a great many slugs in our place."

There are many women desultory, restless, incorrigible interrupters, incapable of amusing themselves or of being amused by the same thing for five minutes together, who would have been pleasanter and so far better members of society if once in their girlhood they had read a good novel with rapt attention—one of Walter Scott's or Miss Austen's, or, not invidiously to select among modern great names, if the Fates had thrown it in their way, Sir Charles Grandison—entering into the characters, realizing the descriptions, following the dialogue, appreciating the humor, and enchained by the plot. If they had once been interested in a book, their attention once concentrated out of themselves, the relaxed unsteady faculties must have been nerved and tightened by the tonic, not for the time only, but with lasting results.

Very few girls have the chance of thorough good training; nor do we find that women of acknowledged genius

have been exceptionally fortunate in this respect. But we find more distinctly in them even than in men the recognition of fiction as the awakening touch, and this often allied with acting, and through the drama. Mrs. Thrale was a pet of Quin's, and taught by him to declaim. At six years old she followed his acting of Cato with absorbed attention. It was one of Garrick's offices to stimulate female genius. He helped to make Hannah More. It is curious in this relation to observe, towards the end of the last century, the success, intellectually speaking, of a girl's school at Reading, conducted by a French emigrant and his wife. Dr. Valpy, indeed, was their friend, and his influence in direct teaching might tell for much, but acting was part of its system. We are not commending this excitement for girls, but merely noting for our argument's sake that three distinguished women, whose names are still household words among us, were pupils at this school—Miss Mitford, Mrs. Sherwood, and Jane Austen. Any reader acquainted with Miss Mitford's works will recall a very bright account, in her most glowing effusive vein, of a school-play, and of the girls who acted it. On Mrs. Sherwood, her much-enjoyed residence at this school, and share in its excitements, made as deep an impression; though she dwells on her school-days avowedly to lament the want of religious training—a deficiency, under the circumstances, not to be wondered at. As for Jane Austen, she went to this same school at Reading when too young to profit much by the instruction imparted there, because she would not be parted from her elder sister Cassandra; but deep impressions may be given and thought awakened before lessons of much consequence are learnt. Here the taste for private theatricals was probably acquired which suggested such admirable scenes in Mansfield Park.

But at this date, when education proper was not thought of for girls, the drama had everywhere an educational part to play. Madame de Genlis, as a child of five, enacted Love with such grace, and looked so charming in fitting costume —pink silk, blue wings, quiver, bow, and all—that her mother had several suits of it made for weekday and Sunday, only taking off the wings when she went to mass. At about the

same age she read Clelie, Mdlle. de Scudery's wonderful romance of ten volumes, with its map of the kingdom of tenderness; caught the infection before she could write, and dictated novels in her turn. These novels of Mdlle. de Scudery, prolix to the utmost point of unreadableness, were supreme influences in their own day. The offspring of a genuine enthusiasm in their author, the fact that they took time, and protracted the *dénouement* beyond the capacity of modern patience, did not prevent the youth of her day devouring them with an enthusiasm as ardent, and they were fit instruments for the purpose we indicate. Both for knowledge of character, in however quaint disguise, and power of description, they bear favorable comparison with many a popular novel of our day, while in elevation of sentiment they stand on a higher level, altogether, than our own sensational literature. We find the same combination of acting and novel reading in the childhood of Madame de Staël, though she came into the world when education had been started as the favorite theme of the philosophers, and women took it up as the panacea with more than manly faith. Fancy was then in disgrace. Madame Necker objected to novels—her daughter must receive a severe classical training; and Madame de Genlis, who felt teaching her specialty, and in her capacity of educationist would have quenched the Fairy Tale once for all, longed to take the clever girl in hand, "to make a really accomplished woman of her." But the drama and the novel were not the less a necessity and passion for the child of genius who cut out paper kings and queens, and gave them each their heroic or passionate part, and undutifully smuggled Clarissa under her lesson books, declaring years after that Clarissa's elopement was one of the great events of her youth. But novels read in childhood, whether by Scudery or Richardson, imparted little of their own tone; this was all caught from society and the family, from the living voice of the practical view of things taken by the world around. Their influence might thus seem to be rather intellectual than moral, though we would not presume on this notion so far as to suffer a child knowingly to read what offends propriety or right feeling.

The child, awaking to its powers, begins to be the same

self it will be to the end, occupied in the same speculations, open to the same interests. With relation to society it knows itself a child; but in its inmost consciousness, from early boyhood to old age, it knows no change. To this innermost consciousness the class of children's books proper, with their juvenile feats, and trials, and lessons, ministers nothing. They are too easy to understand—they keep the mind where it is, instead of stretching it out of itself. They have, indeed, a most valuable purpose; where they are to be had they are practically essential for the average run of children. Yet genius did, in fact, very well without them. As Walter Scott says, in recalling his first acquaintance, at seven, with Hotspur, Falstaff, and others of Shakespeare's characters—"Children derive impulses of a powerful and important kind from hearing things which they cannot entirely comprehend. It is a mistake to write down to children's understanding. Set them on the scent and let them puzzle it out."

It is a very natural prejudice, if only a prejudice, to assume that the nature of the fiction that influenced the first thought of ourselves, and our ancestors, is better suited to the work than what characterizes our own age; but we believe there is reason in the view. The more invention is pure and direct, the less it is mixed with analysis and elaborate psychological speculation, the less it inquires into causes, or stops a plain tale at every turn to tell the reason why, the more congenial it is to a fresh and hungry curiosity. The structure of all the poetry and fiction recorded to have wrought marvels upon infantile brains is simple, and may be fully apprehended; while the high and deep thought beneath bides its time, and grows with the growth. Spenser, Shakespeare, Bunyan, Goldsmith, Walter Scott, Coleridge, Southey, and much of Wordsworth, are all adapted to every stage of thinking humanity. The boast of our own age is the reverse of simplicity. Men not only do things, but the reader has to get to the bottom of why they do them. All the science of instinct is investigated to account for each action. The reverencers of that "wonderful poem," and nine times told tale, "The Ring and the Book," think it small reproach that no child could read it—that he would probably feel repulsion towards it rather than attraction; but the poetry that repels

childhood wants one mainstay of fame and continuance. The sensational novel is as little adapted to a child's taste, with its stock corps of knaves, dupes, villains, and favorites of fortune. He may run through it for the incident, but it can make no footing in the memory. The superior claims on sympathy of vice over virtue is an acquired idea. As an educator it is nowhere, for it damages the intellect as much as the moral nature to be early intangled in the quandaries of crime and a polluted conscience; to view them with the feelings rather of a participator and condoner than a judge. As for the drama, no plays now answer so well as the detestable burlesque—a wallowing in the mire—which no child could relish, after it understood the end and aim, without permanent moral and intellectual degradation.

The motives now for exercising invention are of a more plodding common place order than they were of old, when praise rather than solid pudding was the inducement to the pains of composition. The knack of writing novels with ease, and putting together creditably imaginary talk, incident and description, is an acquirement of our time. It is astonishing how many people can do it well who would not have dreamed of putting pen to paper a hundred years ago. Then it was considered necessary to have a story to tell as a preliminary—the novelist's capital, so to say. It is clear that this is quite a secondary condition in much modern novel writing. Start your characters, and the story is expected to evolve itself. There must be plot and story, in the true sense of the words, to engage and hold a child's attention. But Nature is not lavish of this crowning effort of invention, so that the quantity of our so-called fiction tells nothing for the extent of its influence; while the direction it takes, either as being didactic, and obtruding a moral or philosophic purpose, or as ministering to a base rather than an aspiring curiosity, or as surveying things with a nicety and minuteness of investigation alien to the spirit of childhood, seems still to throw us back upon the old models—the few typical achievements of genius—as the natural chosen nurses and cultivators of the higher faculties—models which probably owe their form and excellence to some remote originator; for as there is nothing so rare as invention in its

strictest sense and highest walk, it follows that of inventors proper, whether in verse or prose, there must be fewer than of any other class the world owns.

PETROLEUM AS A FUEL.

THE question of utilizing crude petroleum for the purposes of fuel, which has attracted the attention of many scientific and practical men ever since the discovery of that article, seems at last to be in a fair way of solution. A series of remarkable experiments have hitherto been tried to utilize the immense heat-producing power of petroleum, and three different plans were tested by the Navy Department in 1867. These, however, all brought petroleum into direct contact with fire, and were, therefore, fraught with much danger as well as many chemical difficulties.

The great aim, therefore, was to discover a process whereby the tendency to carbonization should be overcome. This difficulty has been done away with.

The apparatus consists of a cylinder, like a small locomotive boiler set on end, with a smaller cylinder within it, the intervening space being filled with petroleum. The smaller cylinder is filled with six hundred small copper tubes, and through these the superheated steam passes, producing vapor from the oil that fills the interstices between the tubes. This vaporized oil rises through a layer of prepared sponge, and just at the point of exit is mixed with superheated steam in any required proportion, thus producing hydro-carbon gas. This gas passes through iron tubes to the point where the fuel is needed, and is there burned, very much like common gas. In the case which was shown, the kiln was filled with stone, and in a very short time after the fire was lighted the heat was more intense than can be expressed by comparison. All this time the fire was under perfect control, and, by a simple turn of a screw, the combustion was made more or less intense. The experiment was varied by admitting a greater or less proportion of steam into the pipes, so that in some cases the fire was fed with fifty per cent. or more of water, and the remainder of vaporized oil.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART ELEVEN.

THE PEOPLE'S INFLUENCE, 1700–1870.

"Instead of holding that battles, sieges, grand descriptions, tears, sighs, murder, blood, suicide, assassination, and death alone were 'poetical;' instead of holding that kings and princes, Timours, Bajazets, Hamets, Grand Turks, potentates, and great noblemen alone deserved a monopoly of high and pure feelings, Wordsworth quietly went on, worshipping Nature, and assuring his own heart that that which is true and beautiful, is beautiful and true in the heart of the peasant as well as in that of a great warrior, or a Serene Highness."

AGE OF POETICAL ROMANCE, 1800–1830.

THE student of literature finds writers on the subject speaking of this or that *school* of poetry, and it is well that he fix in his mind the significance of the term. A school of medicine, or theology, we can understand; but a school of poetry is not described with the same exactness, and must be spoken of in more general terms. A school of poets is sometimes a particular sect, to which certain writers acknowledge themselves to belong; or it may be a name applied by others to those who hold a common doctrine, peculiar to a sect, or to a class of teachers.

In speaking of Dr. Donne, in our chapter on the Italian influence, we said he belonged to the so-called *metaphysical* school. This name was originated by Dr. Johnson, and though its appropriateness is strongly questioned, it is still sometimes used to designate a certain class of poets. Of them Professor Reed says, that they deemed it "the perfection of poetry so to entangle every poetic image, or impulse, in a maze of scholastic allusions, in forced and arbitrary turns of thought, paradoxes, antitheses, quaintnesses, subtleties, that the reader's chief pleasure must have been the exercise of a correspondent and inappropriate ingenuity in discovering the path of the labyrinth."

After this class of writers we find the *artificial*, or French school introduced by John Dryden, who, in the words of Pope,

> "taught to join
> The varying verse, the full, resounding line,
> The full majestic march, and energy divine."

Pope adds that there still remained "some traces of our rustic vein," and,

> "E'en copious Dryden wanted, or forgot
> The last and greatest art—the art to blot."

In their efforts at greater polish, Pope and his friends became more artificial than Dryden. Dissatisfied with our Shakespeare, they tried to improve his diction. One line will show how they succeeded. For

> "The icicle that hangs on Dian's temple,"

they would have the world read,

> "The icicle that hangs on the temple of Diana!"

This school cared little for nature. Mr. Southey says of Pope, that he pictured "the planets rolling around the moon, the pole gilt and glowing with stars; trees made yellow, and mountains tipped with silver by the moonlight, and the whole sky in a flood of glory."

After this there arose what has been called the *transition* school, the members of which begun to study nature more. James Thomson, author of the *Seasons*, was of this school. This author has been called our best descriptive poet, but he did not arrive at the simple naturalness attained by the *Lake School*, so called, which marks the age we are now considering.

We have more than once spoken of the intimate connection between historical events and literary progress, and we must note it here again. The Reign of Terror and the overturning of settled organizations in France, were contemporary with the inauguration of a Romantic School of literature there, as well as with the rapid development of a national literature in Germany, of which Gœthe, Schiller, Kant, and Fichte were exponents. These events were not without an influence in England; and thus, in each country, there was a strong tendency to forsake conventional style, and classical themes, and to adopt romantic themes and simple forms of expression.

Dryden and Pope had passed away, and Thomson, Gray, Goldsmith, and Burns had begun the healthful reaction that Wordsworth and others were to carry forward.

Thomas Percy's name is now forced upon our consideration. He deserves to be honored because he seems to have exerted a powerful influence, by simply following out the impulses of an honest taste for a style of literature that had fallen into small repute. Percy was a bishop of the established church, and a member of the family mentioned in *Chevy Chace.* In 1794 he published his *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*, which he compiled from collections made by John Selden, Samuel Pepys, and others. It is natural to suppose that the author's family connection with the Percies, of Northumberland, gave him a pleasant stimulus in his charming work. This same ballad, however, when sung by a blind fiddler, with a rough voice, and rude style, had stirred the heart of polished Philip Sydney, two centuries before Percy's day, and it had called forth encomiums from the refined Addison, also.

The student will be pleased to read the opinion of Addison on this subject, in the *Spectator.* Among the stanzas that he praises are these:

"The stout earl of Northumberland
  A vow to God did make,
His pleasure in the Scottish woods
  Three summers' days to take.

Our English archers bent their bows,
  Their hearts were good and true;
At the first flight of arrows sent
  Full three-score Scots they slew.

So thus did both these nobles die,
  Whose courage none could stain;
An English archer then perceived
  The noble earl was slain;

He had a bow bent in his hand,
  Made of a trusty tree,
An arrow of a cloth-yard long
  Unto the head drew he.

Against Sir Hugh Montgomery
  So right his shaft he set,
The grey-goose wing that was thereon
  In his heart's blood was wet.

This fight did last from break of day
  Till setting of the sun,
For when they rung the evening bell
  The battle scarce was done.

Next day did many widows come
  Their husbands to bewail;
They washed their wounds in brinish tears,
  But all would not prevail.

Their bodies bathed in purple blood
  They bore them then away;
They kissed them, dead, a thousand times,
  When they were clad in clay."

Is this too simple for our consideration? It was not too simple for a bishop to study and publish—and it contains much true poetic thought expressed in natural words. Even Dryden, artificial as *he* was, confessed to an admiration for such old ballads; they gave Sir Walter Scott an impulse, and they helped to bring English poetry into a state of health and purity. The period presents us an array of poets not found in any other era we have to contemplate.

One poet, Samuel Rogers, will help to make us acquainted with all the others, for he was contemporary with them all. He was himself remarkable for refinement rather than force; he was wealthy, and loved to entertain men of letters and statesmen at his elegant home in St. James Place, London.

Let us imagine a group in his drawing-room. There is Percy, dignified yet graceful, and Shelley, the imaginative, audacious sceptic; Byron, the eccentric misanthrope and fascinating poet; George Crabbe, the humble country parson and minute objective poetic artist; Jeremy Bentham, the precocious graduate of Oxford, and utilitarian political economist; Sir Walter Scott, then the romantic bard of the *Border Minstrelsy*, afterwards the "Great Unknown," and prolific author of *Waverly;* Samuel Taylor Coleridge, once the inspired charity-boy, now the wonderful conversationist, and the admired critic, poet, philosopher, and divine; Charles Lamb, the gentle essayist of the East India House; Thomas Arnold, the schoolmaster of Rugby, the historian, critic, and Christian; Robert Southey, most voluminous of them all, the poet of the lakes, the companion of Wordsworth

and Coleridge; Sidney Smith, the droll, good humored, and witty political and social satirist; William Wordsworth, the enthusiastic lover of nature, and the diligent poetical reformer; Thomas Moore, the oriental story-teller, and gay man of society; while in a prominent place we see the great orator of the occident, the child of Phillips Academy, the honored son of Dartmouth, the pride of his country, and the respected guest even here, Daniel Webster.

This name brings us back to our own country. While the galaxy of poets were shining in England, what do we see in America? It was during what we have called the Revolutionary period, from 1775–1830, and truly a contrast of the two countries shows a connection between historical events and literary development.

At the beginning of the period a spirited discussion of grand political principles was in progress, and James Otis, Josiah Quincy, Alexander Hamilton, Fisher Ames, and James Madison were earnest actors in the scene. Theological discussions were going on, led by men with Bibles before them, and holding a pen in one hand and a musket in the other. Of these were Joseph Bellamy, on the mountains of Connecticut; Samuel Hopkins, in the valley of the Housatonic; and Timothy Dwight, in the classic halls of Yale. In the productions of these, and of others in America, a greater cultivation and increased capacity are manifest, as compared with the writings of the Colonial period. It was a time of transition, not of formed character. More culture and greater age was required in the country before a native literature could be developed.

ARTHUR GILMAN.

A LITTLE school girl, up in Massachusetts, asked her teacher what was meant by "Mrs. Grundy." The teacher replied that it meant "the world." Some days afterwards the teacher asked the geography class to which this little "bud of promise" belonged, "What is a zone?" After some hesitation this little girl brightened up and said, "I know; it is a belt around Mrs. Grundy's waist."

NOTES ON THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING.

PART SECOND.

NATURAL ORDER OF STUDY.—The subjects embraced in the programme of studies should always follow each other in natural and logical order. The primary, or elementary subjects, should invariably be presented first, and the elements of each acquired and thoroughly understood by the pupil, before the teacher can judiciously proceed to inculcate the higher truths. Spelling and reading, definitions of things, first ideas of numbers, with simple exercises in mental arithmetic, writing, dictation, geography, history, composition, grammar, correspondence, social science, natural philosophy, etc., should be introduced and taught in accordance with these principles; the lessons, in each instance, being suited to the mental capacity of the pupils. *Natural and logical order* should be a motto with every teacher and student; otherwise success, if possible, will, at all events, be doubtful. It has been well said that order and regularity "diminish labor, and proportionately increase the profits of business." Pupils desirous of acquiring any branch of knowledge, no matter what branch it be, should be led to regard it, not only in an abstract, but also in an applicate sense, and *vice versa.* In the acquisition, for instance, of geometry, arithmetic, geography, natural science, or any other branch of knowledge, *they should study the subject*, and regard books relating thereto as mere tools or means for that purpose. Many pupils (with the concurrence or connivance of their teachers) study the author more than they study the subject, implicitly adopting his views without exercising the least thought or reflection; forgetful of the fact that the human mind should never be a mere *passive* recipient. It should be the great and constant aim of the teacher to incite reflection, and make mind an *active* agent. Mind, in a passive state (if it can acquire useful knowledge at all), is little better than a sponge absorbing water; whereas an active, reflective, reasoning mind, grows in knowledge and power as it grows in age, and day by day approaches nearer to its divine origin—the ever

active Creator Himself, of whom it is the noblest emanation.

How to Study Aright.—It not unfrequently happens that pupils, in their pursuit of knowledge, and from ignorance of "how to study aright," lose much valuable time, and undergo considerable unnecessary trouble, which might be saved to them by a few judicious words or questions from the teacher. Every teacher should occasionally inform his pupils *how to study.* Calling their attention to some particular subject, or part of a subject, he should explain to them how he himself would study it, were he in their position; how he would analyze and combine the respective assertions or statements, and revolve the whole matter in his mind as in a kaleidoscope, seizing on the leading ideas, or "landmarks," as they presented themselves to his mental vision; how, by means of the faculties of reflection and judgment, he would arrange these ideas in natural and logical order, and then store them up for future use in the treasury of his understanding. By these means he will lead his pupils to study in a philosophical manner, and much valuable time will be saved to them which would otherwise be lost or wasted to no purpose. If a pupil, having a thirst for knowledge, knows how to study aright, and has a clear knowledge of what he should study, he is sure to become a learned man. One book studied well, and "digested" after the manner indicated, will be of more real abiding service to him, than would a hundred studied cursorily and without order, reflection or purpose. Quality will always tell against quantity. In fact, the manner and quality of study are far more important, as a mental exercise, than the matter and quantity—far more essential to the right development of the faculties, and the efficient cultivation of literary taste.

Pupils to be Led to do Everything for Themselves.—A skillful teacher will never decline to lend a helping hand to his pupils when such assistance *is necessary;* but he should carefully avoid doing too much for them. Inexperienced teachers are often induced to give *unnecessary* assistance to the pupil, from feelings of mistaken kindness, or from ignorance of the child's mental capacity. Milk is fit food for babes, and beef for adults. The former are fed with a spoon, but who would

dare to offer such infantile civilities to the latter? What man, enjoying the use of his hands, would patiently and thankfully accept such unnecessary and ill-adapted kindness? None. So with the teacher and the taught. There should be no unnecessary nursing—no literary dangling—in the public school or private study. Pupils should be led to exercise their own faculties—taught to depend on their own mental resources; and, as a rule, the teacher should never do anything for them that they could do for themselves without his assistance. By fostering and increasing their self reliance, and by judiciously leading them to encounter and overcome difficulties, by the right use of their own faculties, the teacher will have the satisfaction of seeing his pupils grow up to be true men and women—sturdy trees, "defying the battle and the breeze" of life—each of them being a living testimonial to his personal and professional worth.

Moral Incentives to Studious Habits.—The earneat desire to be useful, and to do what is right, are the most praiseworthy principles of human character, the noblest incentives to human action. They are the offspring of the conscience, and, as such, the most worthy preceptors of conduct. These, with the anxious desire of advancement, and earnest love of acquisition, are the fundamental elements on which the faithful teacher must repose his efforts, whilst exciting and inculcating studious habits. *Emulation*, or the earnest desire to advance in one's studies, to improve our present condition, to excel others without entertaining the desire to depress them, is perhaps one of the most commendable aspirations which can incite or influence the human heart. Progress is written on our nature; *onward and upward* should be our motto individually, as it is of Nature in general. Wholesome emulation, when judiciously employed, will seldom fail to develope this progress in youth. It tends to make boys more than they are, or what they are not, and in a certain sense enables them to surpass themselves. The desire to excel is, therefore, one of the noblest aspirations which can fire the human heart. *Curiosity* is no small incentive to study. The "propensity in children to do mischief" is, in reality, a wholesome curiosity, an intense desire to acquire information. The heavenly delights experienced in acquir-

ing useful and interesting information, varies in proportion to the age and mental capacity of the student; but in all cases the pleasure of acquisition far exceeds the labor. We may feel assured that a baby experiences more pleasure in studying "the philosophy of an old drum," out of which it has just knocked the bottom, or in contemplating the fragments of a china cup which it has just broken, than a miser would experience on discovering a gold mine. In "destroying things" the child seeks to gratify its curiosity—to gain information; and if in after years the educator can sufficiently arouse and skillfully guide this propensity in his pupils, thenceforth their minds will neither slumber nor sleep, and learning will be a pleasure to the teacher and the taught.

The Love of Approbation, though usually considered one of the "selfish propensities," when judiciously used is a very powerful incentive. This principle, highly commendable so long as it excites the pupil to desire the admiration of the good, the pious, and the learned—so long as it incites him to seek the approval of parents, teachers, and other friends—is one against which many objections may be advanced. Nevertheless, we feel persuaded that a skillful teacher will seldom appeal to it in vain. Many cases occur in which the teacher will succeed in winning the pupil to the side of order and diligent, earnest study, by a judicious appeal to this incentive, when he would have failed by appealing to other motives. In addition to the moral incentives there are others, more popular perhaps, and more tangible if less honorable, —such as prizes and rewards—incentives which experience proves to be equally effective.

Prizes and Rewards as Incentives.—For many years it has been a matter of debate with the greatest minds of the age whether, under all the phases of the case, it is advisable and commendable to offer prizes for competition in schools; and whether the incentive to study thus produced does not more than counterbalance the envy and jealousy said to be engendered thereby. We are quite prepared to admit the strength of the arguments against prizes, as awarded under the old system—a system which ignored intrinsic worth, good conduct, diligence, punctuality, etc.—whilst regarding talent

or successful recitation, alone, as worthy of "the crown." Under the old system it was exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to do justice to the several competitors. The examiners, or judges, often found it difficult to state the names of those entitled to prizes, because, as men are not and never will be of one mind, the pupil who would he considered best by one judge, would be regarded as only second by another judge, and *vice versa*. Then, again, the facilities of the competitors in preparing their lessons, or in acquiring knowledge, are subject to much variation. The facilities of some may be sufficient, whilst those of their confreres are totally inadequate. The former may have the assistance of kind parents, or intelligent friends, and not labor under the necessity of attending to extraneous matters after school hours, whereas the latter may be devoid of these advantages. Then, again, nature may have given some pupils parts superior to those of others who are far more industrious; so that what the former learned in a few hours, may have cost their "antagonists" as many days, or weeks, of persevering toil. If the motives and labor of the latter be taken into account, the former must yield them the palm of merit; for surely the *motive* and *effort* are the measure of the virtue and value of every action. The "old principle" on which prizes were awarded tended to excite emulation amongst a very limited number, whilst the remainder, in many cases, professed "total indifference," feeling that persevering toil for a season would bring them no immediate reward. Prizes are, doubtless, the most powerful and best of all incentives when the competitors are of the same degree of mental standing—where the facilities of acquisition are similar, and a right system of awards adopted. But when the prize is the measure of success, not of effort—of good luck, not of intrinsic worth—and when the competitors are not equals in capacity, and the rivalry engendered is confined to "a few," then the prize incentive will be a failure; and such it really was under the old system.

Under the new system medals and prizes, or rewards, are offered for, (1) good conduct; (2) diligence, and (3) regular attendance, as well as for (4) efficiency in the various branches of knowledge; and they are so numerous that every industrious, well conducted pupil is sure to receive a

prize in one or more of the four departments above mentioned. Every pupil feels that if he deserves a memento of his benefactor's regard, his teacher's love, or his own persevering efforts to be "good and great," he will be sure to receive it. Each will exclaim to himself, "If I fail in talent, I shall obtain a prize for diligence; and if I fail in talent and diligence, I am sure to acquire it for regular attendance or good conduct." Under the new system the individual merits of all are recognized—the larger fish cannot appropriate all the pearls, nor will the smaller fry be indifferent to the goal set before them. [Trustees and teachers of schools should remember that prizes for proficiency, like those in other departments, should be numerous in proportion to the number of pupils in each class. Prizes should be offered for proficiency in each individual subject, and also for proficiency in the whole programme of studies. No pupil should be awarded the latter unless he had obtained a "good conduct" prize; but every pupil on the register should be allowed to compete for the prizes in individual subjects.

Under the new system teachers must keep a daily register of the scholarship and deportment of their pupils, On the strength of the reports in this register, prizes, or medals, are awarded at the close of each session. This nullifies any suspicion of foul play or favoritism. The keeping of such a register would occupy considerable time, and impose much additional labor on teachers generally, and for this reason it is more suitable for a small collegiate class than for a public school. A substitute for such a register, entitled "Aids to School Discipline," has been published. These "Aids" are in general use in the northern States, and have been reprinted in Canada. It may be truly said of the 'Aids,' that "they secure the good results of accurate records and reports with little expense of time, ... and awaken a lively paternal interest, for the pupil takes home with him *the witnesses of his daily conduct and progress.*" We may add that they consist of merits, cards, checks, and certificates; and the pupils of schools in which they are used, are awarded prizes at the respective examinations, in accordance with the value of their merits for the preceding school session.

G. V. Le Vaux.

ELOCUTION.

PART TWO.

A TEACHER may point out to me a boy, and say, "here is a boy whose selections for the stage are always appropriate, his attitude and gestures graceful, his voice strong and musical, his articulation clear and distinct; he is the best speaker in my school, and bids fair to become a distinguished orator; yet he has never received the least instruction, advice, or assistance in elocution, but is left to choose his own pieces, and to prepare himself, unaided, for the stage. How do you reply to this?" I would reply by pointing out a boy in my own school and saying, "here is a boy without the first natural qualification for a successful public speaker, and is as utterly devoid of any ambition to become one as he is destitute of ability. His position upon the stage was outlandish; his gestures, whenever he could be induced to make any, were ill-timed, awkward, and inappropriate; his lungs weak, and articulation bad; yet, by continual exercise in lung gymnastics, I have strengthened his voice and lungs, and rendered his tones clear; with patient teaching, by precept and example, and persistent drill, I have so far corrected his natural awkwardness and diffidence, that his position is now comparatively graceful and easy; I have taught him to make his gestures much more timely and appropriate; by a systematic vocal training I have rendered his enunciation clearer and more distinct; by constant practice I have, in a measure, overcome his timidity, and made him feel more at ease and unrestrained in the presence of an audience; in short, by a thorough course of elocutionary instruction, persistently followed up, I have so far benefited and improved him, that whenever he is called upon in after life to speak in public, he will do so with comparative success—with credit to himself and to his teacher."

You had better consider that the pupils placed under your care are, as a general thing, common mortals, who need to be taught, disciplined, and advised, that they may become worthy members of society. Your genuine genius, Mr. Teacher, who possesses the real "Promethean spark," who

scorns all instruction or advice, rejects all the results of experience, and soars off into the realms of originality and becomes an intellectual Midas, is a rare bird, very rare; indeed, about as rare as the new born babe who rejects with contempt the proffered breast of its mother, and soars off into existence, relying upon his own resources for nourishment. In the list of great orators the brightest name is that of Demosthenes. Did he become the golden-tongued orator because "it was born in him," and he "could not help it?" On the contrary, is not every schoolboy familiar with the story of his heroic efforts, and incessant toil, to qualify himself for a public speaker; of his extraordinary expedients, and unwearied endeavors in overcoming the many natural impediments with which he was afflicted? A man who only possesses persistence in a high degree often gets dubbed a genius at last. If we inquire into the condition of elocutionary culture contemporary with the early education of Demosthenes, we shall find that the schools of Athens furnished *three* distinct classes of instructors for the voice: one to superintend practice in *pitch;* another to conduct exercises in *force;* and a third to regulate vocal *melody* and *inflection.*

A good, strong, clear voice, owing to our prevalent deficiency in education, is a thing so rare that we are apt to regard it as an original endowment of the constitution; a grace not lying within the scope of acquisition; a charm, the absence of which, like that of personal beauty, implies no fault. That this idea is not entirely correct, all who have had the advantage of vocal drill and culture will testify. Mr. Murdock, the actor and elocutionist, tells us that by an appropriate vocal training, he gained, within the space of some months, to such an extent in power and depth of voice, as to add to its previous range a whole octave. Whitfield made a naturally weak voice wonderful for strength and volume, by persistent vocal drill. Dr. Franklin found by computation upon a certain occasion, that he (Whitfield) might be well heard by over thirty thousand auditors. Practice gave to the utterance of Garrick so extraordinary an energy, that even his under key was distinctly audible to ten thousand people. Strength of voice is of paramount importance to the speaker, and it is an element which is very susceptible

of cultivation. Professor Russell says: "It is a fact familiar to instructors in elocution, that persons commencing practice (in vocal gymnastics) with a very weak and inadequate voice, attain in a few weeks a perfect command of the utmost degrees of force."

It is well known that there is a wide difference of opinion, among elocutionists, as to the extent speakers and readers should be governed by fixed and special rules. Some hold that, in the delivery of every sentence, the application of emphasis, pause, pitch, and inflection, etc., should be regulated by fixed rules. In accordance with this theory they have formed, for the guidance of pupils, complex and elaborate systems of elocutionary rules. Others, on the other hand, regard all specific rules for the management of the voice in speaking, as not only useless, but positively injurious. Whately is the leader of this class. He advocates what he calls the *natural manner* of speaking, for the attainment of which he prescribes the rule, "not only to pay no attention to the voice, but studiously to *withdraw* the thoughts from it." I agree with Philbrick, that the true course lies midway between these extremes. "Because Walker fell into the error of attempting to carry his principles too far, and perplexed the student with endless lists of rules, it does not follow that *all* rules should be disregarded." The best example of the middle course is Prof. Mark Bailey's essay introductory to Hillard's Sixth Reader, and I would recommend it to teachers before any other work on elocution with which I am acquainted; while for a manual of lung gymnastics, and vocal drill and discipline, I would recommend the works of Drs. Rush and Porter and Profs. Russell, Murdock, and Monroe, and for the laws of gesture, Austin's Chironomia. Whately is evidently in error in wholly proscribing attention to the voice in speaking. Philbrick says that in *learning* to dance a pupil must pay attention to the motions of his limbs; but when practice has made the movements familiar, his mind is withdrawn from them. They then become *natural.* So with the student of elocution. In his disciplinary exercises *he must attend to his voice.* But when he comes to practical delivery, he should withdraw his mind from the *manner* of utterance, and concentrate it

intensely upon the *matter*—the thoughts and feelings to be expressed.

In the department of gesture the instruction should be mostly of a *negative* nature, and occupy itself mainly with correcting faults. Among these faults will be found, 1st, want of action; 2d, want of expression of countenance; 3d, a stiff or careless attitude; 4th, want of appropriateness; 5th, excess of motion; 6th, too great violence of action; 7th, too great complexity; 8th, a mechanical uniformity; 9th, tardiness, the action *following* the utterance which it should accompany, or slightly precede. The piece should be accurately committed to memory, without the variation of a syllable, so that in delivery no effort will be required to recall it. The pupil must have time to practice by himself, and as one author expresses it, "It must be impressed upon his mind that he must *practice, practice, practice.* He must be made to understand that the repetition of a piece three or four times is no adequate preparation, and that he must go over with it twenty, thirty, or *fifty* times, if he would excel." Above all, let it be remembered that the perfection of declamation consists in delivering the piece as though it were *real speaking*, the speaker putting himself in imagination so completely into the situation of him he personates, as to express himself exactly as such a person would have done in the supposed situation.

Elocutionary training, in a hygienic point of view, is of great importance. "Few," says a writer upon this subject, "are aware how much may be effected by these exercises, judiciously practiced, in those constitutions where the chest is narrow, indicating a tendency to pulmonary disease." The want of this kind of training is the cause of much of the bronchial disease with which clergymen, and other public speakers, are afflicted. The following exercises are prescribed and explained in Murdock and Russell's work on elocution: "attitude of the body, and position of the organs, deep breathing, diffusive or tranquil breathing, expulsive or forcible breathing, explosive or abrupt breathing, sighing, sobbing, gasping, and panting." I have had boys in my school who, by one term's drill in vocal gymnastics, have had the time that they were able to produce an audible

sound by the gradual expulsion of their breath, increased from thirty seconds to over a minute, and the volume and force of their voices more than doubled.

I make the following quotation from Murdock and Russell: "Gymnastic and calisthenic exercises are invaluable aids to the culture and development of the voice. Even a slight degree of exercise, adapted to the expansion of the chest, and to the freedom and force of the circulation, will serve to impart energy and glow to the muscular apparatus of the voice, and clearness to its sound." But my purpose is not to elaborate a system of elocution for the use of teachers (any teacher will find all the directions he needs in the works I have named), it is merely to draw their attention to the sad, I could almost say criminal, neglect of this important branch of education, that by giving to it and School Gymnastics their proper place in our educational scheme, we may make provision for the acquiring of that moral and intellectual power, and that expressive force, which result from the blending of a high toned physical and mental training.

DON OLAND.

THE French, just now, filled with not unnatural rage and excitement, are talking rather wildly about the Germans as "barbarians." But here is what one of the most profound thinkers and most acute observers of France, M. Taine, said of the Germans just before the war broke out: "The Germanic people of the present day, and throughout history, are, primarily, the great laborers of the world; in matters of intellect, none equal them; in erudition, in philosophy—in the most crabbed linguistic studies, in voluminous editions, dictionaries, and other compilations, in researches of the laboratory, in all science—in short, whatever stern and hard, but necessary and preparatory work there is to be done, that is their province; patiently, and with most commendable self-sacrifice, they hew out every stone that enters into the edifice of modern times."

GUTZKOW'S EDUCATIONAL NOVEL:

THE section of Gutzkow's educational novel, "The Sons of Pestalozzi," published in the present number, brings the narrative up to the moment that the hero of the romance, a second Casper Hauser, appears on the scene. The preceding chapters are merely introductory, engaging our interest in the *dramatis personæ*, in the localities, and in the plot itself.

Our author, by treating the educational question as the main subject in a work of fiction, has solved a peculiar æsthetic problem. The former attempts which have been made to combine the subject of education with the romantic interest of a novel, have not generally been successful. The English literature, indeed, exhibits no serious attempt in that direction. But German and French writers have repeatedly treated educational subjects in the form of novels. Rousseau's Emil, Gœthe's Wanderjahre, Pestalozzi's Lienhard and Gertrude, two or three novels of Jéan Paul, and several of other distinguished authors, haye obtained a just celebrity. But these works can hardly be ranked among the works of fiction. They are essays to which the mere form of the novel is given, the action being generally wanting in dramatic life, and showing often, too plainly, a mere frame for educational theories. This is very different in Gutzkow's novel, in which both the plot and its development are of genuine dramatic power, being so thoroughly interwoven with the didactic parts, that the one could not be separated from the other without destroying the whole. We may truly say that the real hero of this novel is "Education," the author having attached to it an interest similar to that which we feel for the persons of a drama. It is true that in the introductory chapters the subject of education is only incidentally introduced, as a theme of conversation, and without any necessary connection with the plot. But these educational discussions, or digressions, are merely intended to give the proper tone to the mind of the reader, and to make him acquainted with the educational opinions of the acting persons, who, in the later stages of the narrative,

will appear as the principal actors in the educational drama.

Another feature, not less striking, by which Gutzkow's work is distinguished from those mentioned is, the idealistic character of the latter, while Gutzkow's novel is based altogether on reality. Rousseau, Gœthe, Jean Paul, and Pestalozzi had each of them devised peculiar educational theories. Only that of Pestalozzi has been subjected to the test of practice; those of the three others, whatever may be their merits, from a poetical and æsthetic stand-point, are mere creations of their imaginations, belonging to an ideal world, different from ours. As soon as introduced in practice they must necessarily be destroyed by the remorseless logic of facts. But Pestalozzi's system has at least lived, and has still its adherents. His novel, Lienhard and Gertrude, represents his system in its actual workings; but it is only *his* system, and his world is not the real world in which we live. Gutzkow's novel, on the contrary, rests, from the beginning to the end, on reality, representing the existing world with all its lights and shadows. Nor is it confined to one system, but elucidates all of them. Describing the grapple of the German mind with the educational question, it makes us acquainted with the very laws and regulations passed in Germany, especially in Prussia, on school matters in all their aspects. It introduces us into the recitation rooms of the schools, as well as in the quiet study of the law giver; to the homes of the teachers, as well as to the sporting grounds and the studying "cells" of the pupils. It should hardly seem possible to infuse into these dry and matter-of-fact subjects the breath of life, poetry, and romance; and whoever undertakes this task must be of unusual poetical talent. The author has, indeed, completely conquered this difficulty, and furnished a new proof that his great popularity is eminently deserved.

THE microscope reveals the fact that a speck of potato rot the size of a pin head contains two hundred ferocious little animals, biting and clawing each other savagely.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE SUMMER EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS promise to be of unusual interest. The officers are making extensive preparations, and we hope the attendance will be good.

NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—TWENTY-SIXTH ANNIVERSARY.—The annual meeting of this Association will be held in the city of Lockport, (place of session, Arcade Hall,) on the 25th, 26th, and 27th days of July.

The officers are arranging the programme; and exercises of more than usual interest and variety are promised.

Evening lectures will be delivered by Jno. W. Armstrong, D.D., Prest. Fredonia Normal School, on "The Glacial Epoch," and by D. R. Ford, A.M., Prof. of Math. and Chem., Elmira Fem. Coll. Dr. Alden, of the State Normal School, Albany, has promised an address, on the "True Spirit of the Teacher's work." Other papers, reports, and addresses may be expected as follows: "Teaching of Language," by C. M. Hutchins, A.M., Palmyra; "Methods of Education," by Wm. C. Bowen, A.M., Skaneateles; "School Economy," by J. W. Barker, A.M., Buffalo; "Teaching of the Franco-German War on Education," by J. W. Bulkley, Brooklyn; "The Successful Teacher," by M. M. Baldwin, A.M., Principal Groton Acad.; "How to use the Body," by Prof. J. C. Moses, Dundee; "The Monitorial System in the English Schools," by Alonzo Flack, A.M., Claverack; "The Use of Text-Books," by Walter A. Brownell, A.M., Fairfield; "Preservative Effects of Education," by Prof. T. B. Stowell, A.M., Cortland; "Educational Tests," by O. Morehouse, A.M., Albion; "Physical Science in Elementary Instruction," by Henry A. Balcom, A.M., Corning; "What shall I Study?" by N. T. Clarke, Ph. D., Canandaigua; "The Bible, a book to be taught in School," by J. Tenney, Owego; "Compulsory Education," by S. G. Love, Jamestown; "Grammar," by C. S. Halsey, A.M., Canandaigua; "The Study of Natural History in Common Schools," by J. H. French, LL.D., Vermont; "Mood Language," by D. H. Cruttenden, A.M., New York; "Hints in Teaching," by Miss Flora G. Parsons, Rochester; "The Education of the Perceptive Faculties," by S. A. Lattimore, A.M., Roches-

ter; "Arithmetical Generalization," by A. J. Robb, A.M., Waterford; "Duties of Citizens to the State should be made a Special Study in Schools," by W. S. Smyth, A.M., Oneida. A poem, "Woman's Rights," will be read by Miss R. E. Cleveland, Muncy, Pa.

In addition to the papers above named, will also be presented the Annual Address of the President, Prof. J. Dorman Steele, Ph. D., Elmira, and the reports of the Standing Committees: On Condition of Education, by Deputy Supt. Edward Danforth, Ch'n.; and on Improved methods, by Jas. H. Hoose, A.M., Prest. Cortland Normal School.

Opportunity will be afforded for the discussion of the subjects presented in the papers and reports.

The evening entertainments will be enlivened by select readings. Mr. O. H. Fethers, of the *Educational Review*, St. Louis, and Mr. W. M. Jelliffe, Brooklyn.

Music will be furnished under the direction of the local committee.

The head-quarters will be at the Judson House.

The exercises will open on Tuesday, the 25th, at 2 P. M., precisely.

Ladies will be entertained by the citizens. Hotels will make a reduction on their usual prices.

Arrangements will be made, as far as possible, for reduced fare on the railroads.

For circulars and other particulars, address J. Dorman Steele, Prest., Elmira; James Cruikshank, Cor. Sec., Brooklyn, or James Atwater, Esq., Lockport.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS will be at St. Louis, August 22d, 23d, and 24th. An incomplete programme has been issued. The exercises will occur about as follows:

TUESDAY, August 22d.—10 A.M., Meeting of General Association for organization. Brief Addresses. Appointment of Committees. 11 A.M., Meeting of Sections for Organization.—I. *Department of Higher Education.* Programme not yet arranged. II. *Normal Section.* 2½ P.M., Paper by R. Edwards, on "Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools." Discussion of the same, by Miss Anna C. Brackett, Prin. St. Louis Normal School; J. H. Hoose, Prin. State Normal School, Cortland, N. Y.; and Wm. F. Phelps, Prin. State Normal School, Winona, Minn. III. *Superintendents' Section.* Programme not com-

plete. IV. *Elementary Section.* 2½ P.M., "Methods of teaching Reading:" Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio. Discussion of same. 4 P.M., "Method of teaching Language:" Prof. D. H. Cruttenden, New York. 8 P.M., Address: probably by Hon. W. H. Ruffner, of Virginia.

WEDNESDAY, August 23d.—I. *Department of Higher Education.* II. *Normal Section.* 9 A.M., Paper by Charles H. Verrill, Prin. State Normal School, Mansfield, Pa., on "A Graded System of Normal Schools." Discussion, by Geo. M. Gage, Prin. State Normal School, Winona, Minn., and others. III. *Superintendents' Section.* IV. *Elementary Section.* 9 A.M., "Methods of teaching Drawing:" Henry C. Harden, of Mass. Discussion of same. 10½ A.M., "Philosophy of Methods:" John W. Armstrong, D.D., N. Y. GENERAL ASSOCIATION.—2½ P.M., Discussion—"How far may the State provide for the Education of her children at public cost?"—Hon. N. Bateman, of Illinois; H. F. Harrington, Esq., of Mass.; W. T. Harris, Esq., of Missouri; W. W. Folwell of Minnesota. 5 P.M., Miscellaneous Business. 8 P.M., Address by Hon. B. G. Northrop, of Ct.; subject: "A Compulsory National System of Education impracticable and Un-American." 8.45 P.M., Discussion of same.

THURSDAY, Aug. 24th.—I. *Department of Higher Education.* II. *Normal Section.* 9 A.M., Paper by J. W. Armstrong, D.D., Prin. State Normal School, Fredonia, N. Y., on "Principles and Methods, their character, place, and limitation, in a Normal Course." Discussion, by M. A. Newell, Prin. State Normal School, Baltimore, Md.; W. A. Jones, Prin. State Normal School, Terre Haute, Indiana, and others. III. *Superintendents' Section.* IV. *Elementary Section.* 9 A.M., "Methods of Teaching Geography:" Mary Howe Smith, of N. Y. Discussion of same. 10.30 A.M., Discussion—"What constitutes a good Primary Teacher?" 11.30 A M., Miscellaneous business and election of officers. 2.30 P.M., Paper by A. J. Rickoff, Esq., of Ohio: Subject—"Place and Uses of Text-Books." 3 P.M., Paper by Thomas Davidson, Esq., of Mo.: Subject—"Pedagogical Bibliography—its possessions and its wants." 3.30 P.M., Paper by Alfred Kirk, Esq., of Illinois: Subject—"What Moral uses may the Recitation subserve?" 4 P.M., Discussion of Mr. Rickoff's paper. 5 P.M., Election of officers and other business. 8 P.M., Address: Thomas Hill, D.D., of Waltham, Mass.

All the hotels of St. Louis have very generously reduced their rates to delegates attending the convention. Railroads and steamboats have, in most cases, reduced their fares. Full particulars may be obtained from the gentlemen, who constitute the Executive Committee: J. L. Pickard, Prest. Nat. Ed. Ass'n; Eli T. Tappan, Cor. Sec. College Section; W. D. Henkle, Prest. Sup'ts' Section; S. H. White, Prest. Normal Section; E. A. Sheldon, Prest. Elementary Section; W. T. Harris, Prest. Local Committee.

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION will hold its

third Annual Session at New Haven, Conn., commencing July 25, at 3 P. M. The annual address will be delivered by the President of the Association, Chancellor Howard Crosby, on Tuesday evening.

ALABAMA.—The following is a summary of Montgomery City Public School reports for the month of March, 1871. The expenses have all been paid: Number of pupils in white schools, two hundred and eight; number in colored schools, three hundred and ninety; total number attending during the month, five hundred and ninety-eight. *Monthly expense:* white schools, $360.00; colored schools, $355.30; total, $615.30.

MISSISSIPPI.—Ex-Senator Hiram R. Revels has been elected President of Alcorn University, at Jackson, Miss. Mr. Revels was nominated by Gov. Alcorn, and the election was an unanimous one. The remaining officers and members of the University Board are gentlemen who will do no discredit to their positions.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

ANYTHING from the pen of the author of "Ecce Homo" is pretty sure to be worthy of attention. He is not only a thinker, but has the rare power of being able to put his reader in full possession of his views. His clear, crisp, transparent style is the fitting vehicle for his clear, definite, sagacious thought. Of the essays in the volume named below,[1] we wish to call especial attention to that on "English in Schools." It is the worthier of regard, as coming from one whose classical training has been thorough and extensive. When he emphasizes and pleads for the systematic study of his mother tongue, therefore, we may be sure it is not because of utter ignorance of Latin and Greek and whatever else is to be reckoned as consti-

1 ROMAN IMPERIALISM, and other Lectures and Essays. By J. R. Seeley, M.A., Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1871.

tuting the *literæ humaniores.* We could wish those instructors who insist so vehemently that all boys and girls should get a smattering of Latin for the sake of the "discipline" and the "knowledge of English Grammar" thereby imparted—and they are not seldom those who have but a smattering themselves—could read, mark and inwardly digest, and afterward put in practice, the views announced in this paper of Professor Seeley's. But our purpose is simply to call attention to the essay, not to give an abstract of it. The paper on Liberal Education in universities is specially calculated for the latitude of the English Cambridge, but is not without important suggestions for the heads of American colleges. The two essays on Milton's Political Opinions and Poetry are singularly fresh and enjoyable. Such racy, original, convincing criticism does not appear every month. Then there is a lecture on the Philosophy of Art, another on the Teaching of Politics, and another on the Church as a Teacher of Morality. This last we particularly commend to the consideration of those churches and clergymen who have a holy horror of "politics" in the pulpit.

Professor Seeley believes that "very little, if any, knowledge of English is conveyed in the learning of a *little* Latin and Greek." In learning the vernacular, too, he would "dismiss altogether the misleading analogy of Latin, and consider simply the end we have in view." He advises us to "begin with what is most attractive to young boys, such as Macauley's Lays, Kingsley's Heroes, Scott's Poems, and Tales of a Grandfather," putting the older poets and the philosophical writers at the end of the course. All this is very judicious counsel. It is wise to consider the language as it is, before we investigate it as it was; to make some solid acquaintance with the present living speech before looking after that of our ancestors. This is the dictate of utility, as well as of the accepted maxim that we should proceed from the known to the unknown. Besides, whatever reasons are assignable for beginning with the earliest English, and thence coming down to the language of to-day, would seem to be over-balanced by the consideration that the majority of pupils would be unable, for lack of time, to

complete such a course, and so would have to leave school ignorant of what they need most to know. If the first two years of the high-school course were occupied in part with such study of literature and language as Prof. S. recommends, the third year might well be given to the careful reading of two or three plays of Shakespeare, with some of the choice minor poems of Milton, Wordsworth and Tennyson, and selections from the great prose writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, such as Moore, Hooker, Bacon, and Sir Thomas Browne; and the fourth year to a consideration of the history of the language, not omitting a careful examination of a few specimens of the older English. We agree with Prof. S. in desiring "to see Chaucer and Piers Plowman read occasionally in the highest class." And we would insist on college classes getting some knowledge of these early lights of English literature, even if it took the time which else would be devoted to a comedy of Aristophanes.

IN the *Monthly*, for February, we spoke of the helps with which Hudson and Craik have accompanied their school editions of certain of Shakespeare's plays. We have since examined the "Select Plays" of the Clarendon Press Series,[2] edited and copiously annotated by Messrs. Clark and Wright, the well-known editors of the Cambridge Shakespeare. The fullness of the introductions and notes, as well as the compactness and cheapness of the volumes, commend them to the notice of teachers. Rolfe's edition of the Merchant of Venice,[3] however, is still better suited to its purpose than that of the Cambridge editors. Mechanically, it is a gem of a book, while the notes and other apparatus are what one would expect from the man who gave us so satisfactory an edition of Craik's *English Shakespeare*. Its references to Craik materially enhance its value for use in the class-room. We could wish the lines and

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2 SHAKESPEARE. SELECT PLAYS.—I. The Merchant of Venice. II. Richard the Second. III. Macbeth. Edited by W. G. Clark, M.A., and W. Aldis Wright, M.A. Oxford, at the Clarendon Press. New York: Macmillan & Co.

3 SHAKESPEARE'S Comedy of the Merchant of Venice. Edited, with Notes, by William J. Rolfe, A.M. With engravings. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1871.

notes had been numbered for convenience of reference, as in the other editions named.

THOSE who have made the acquaintance of Morris' *Specimens of Early English*, will need no certificate of ours that his selections from the Canterbury Tales[4] are thoroughly edited. The text can be depended on as a faithful transcript, with corrections of clerical errors, from a good manuscript; the grammatical introduction, though brief, is sufficient; the notes and glossary are the work of one of the most accomplished of scholars in this special branch. We have hope that some of our best teachers will make the attempt to bring their more mature pupils to an appreciation of, and delight in, this natural, hearty, joyous old poet. It seems no difficult task at the worst, and Mr. Morris has done much toward making it easy. To master the dialect of Piers the Plowman will require a little more time and effort, yet a few lessons—a fourth part of the time usually given to the first book of the Æneid—will solve most of the difficulties, and bring the pupil in healthful contact with a mind of singular energy. The edition named below[5] contains the first seven *passus*, with introduction, notes and glossary. Mr. Skeat adopts the system of large lines instead of the broken arrangement followed by Wright, and in many other respects has improved upon the editing of his predecessors. The Chaucer and Piers Plowman are cheap, costing but a dollar each, and should find their way into the hands of all who give instruction in the English Language and Literature. If Prof. Corsen's admirable edition of the Legends of Good Women and a selection from Sober's Reprints are added to them, so much the better. Not many years ago it was no easy matter, save for those of abundant means, to make direct and useful acquaintance with the sources of our English speech. To-day, however, the helps are so numerous and so easily procured, as to take away all excuse for neglect.

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4 CHAUCER. The Prologue, The Knight's Tale, The Noune Prestes Tale. From the Canterbury Tales. A Revised Text. Edited by R. Morris. *Second* edition. Oxford and New York: Macmillan & Co.

5 THE VISION OF WILLIAM concerning Piers the Plowman, by William Langland. Edited by the Rev. W. W. Skeat, M.A. Oxford and New York: Macmillan & Co.

SMITH'S HAND-BOOK OF ETYMOLOGY.—In A. S. Barnes & Co's. *Educational Bulletin* (for May, 1871, page 7), there is a feeble attempt to defend Smith's Etymology from the effects of a notice in the *Independent*, the defense being in fact worthy of the book. If the *Independent* differs "as to the real source of many of the words," we are told that, "As this is a question of authorities, it admits of no discussion." Mr. Smith is an authority whose opinion is not to be controverted, because his "researches have been wide (?) and careful, (?) and we believe (?) he has been in an unusual degree successful and accurate." *We*, on the other hand, have shown that his book is one of the least reliable before the public—a piece of pretentious ignorance, in which for example, "Gaelic" is paraded on the title-page, and before which the author succumbs at the letter D in his alphabetical order, not even filling a single page, and after explaining CRAG, giving CRAGGY also, but omitting CARRAGEEN from his "complete" work. The "Italian" department is equally meagre, being limited to *four* roots in B, then nothing, until we get to R with one *root*, and S with *four* roots, then nothing again to the end.

The *Educational Bulletin* says: "It is much easier to condemn after superficial investigation than to compile such a book as this." This we grant. A superficial view of such a book is sufficient, and it would be difficult to "compile" such material without access to Mr. Smith's brain, where the etymological imps must have a merry time. If the book were a good compilation we would not object, but unfortunately Mr. Smith has gone to Smith instead of to Diefenbach for his "Gothic," and he has not even consulted himself for the Gaelic after the letter D, and Italian after B.

"As the case now stands, Smith's is *the only book* that represents the science as a whole for schools." Not so. There is no science in this blundering book. There are no such prefixes as *ig* and *cog* in i-gnoble and co-gnate, or as *his* "science" has them (pp. 50, 52), "*Ig*-NO'BLE" and "*Cog*'-NATE." This prevents him from seeing that the same GNO should bring iGNOble (Smith, p. 267) and GNOmon (Smith, p. 312) under one root, and a careful compiler would have kept

them together. Similarly, the verb NOTICE is placed under one "root," and the noun NOTICE under another.

"Until there is a better, (!) at least, then, let the student bless the bridge that bears him safely (?) over." There are several better books, because the errors of this one are in proportion to its pretensions, and there is no safety with a blind guide, or with a literary charlatan.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published a "Common School Series of Drawing Books," designed and drawn by M. H. Holmes. There are four parts, or books, made up of copies and blanks on alternate pages.—To their series of "Science for the Young," they have added Light, by Jacob Abbott, in a very tasteful volume of 310 pages, with numerous and excellent engravings.—"Bench and Bar," by L. J. Bigelow. This is a complete digest of Wit, Humor, Asperities and Amenities of the Law, with portraits and illustrations.—"Life and Times of Henry Lord Brougham," written by himself—Vol. I. Two volumes are to follow this. —"The Ogilvies," a novel, by Miss Mulock.—"Ralph the Heir," a novel, by Anthony Trollope, 280 pages, with illustrations.—"The Institutes of Medicine," by Dr. Martyn Paine. 1150 pages, with fine portrait.

MESSRS. DODD & MEAD have just published "Papers for Home Reading," by Dr. John Hall. 365 pages, with portrait.—"The American Cardinal," a novel. 315 pages.

MESSRS. LITTLE, BROWN & CO., in publishing "A Dictionary of English Synonymes and Synonymous or Parallel Expressions," have placed the American public under peculiar obligations to them. The work, edited by Richard Soule, is designed as a practical guide to aptness and variety of phraseology. The student and the teacher will find the work invaluable.

MESSRS. LEAVITT & ALLEN BROS. have lately issued a "History and Mystery of Common Things." 350 pages.

MESSRS. CHARLES SCRIBNER & CO., have added to their illustrated "Library of Wonders," "Wonders of European Art." 335 pages, eleven pictures.

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

Work and Play.—A Monthly of Instruction and Amusement for the Young Folks at home. The only ORIGINAL DOLLAR PUBLICATION. This Magazine, which one year ago was an experiment, is now an established success. Clergymen, Teachers and Parents are loud in praise of its moral and elevating tone, its elements of instruction, and the fund of occupation and amusement for the home that every number contains. If you have never seen a copy, inquire for it at the news office, or send ten cents to Milton Bradley & Co., for a sample number. The list of contributors for 1871, can not be excelled in the country.

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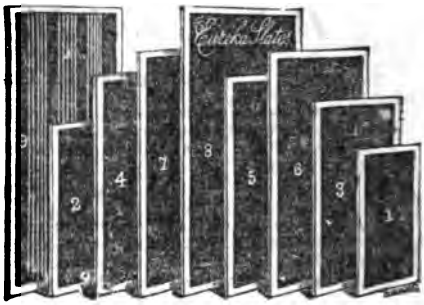

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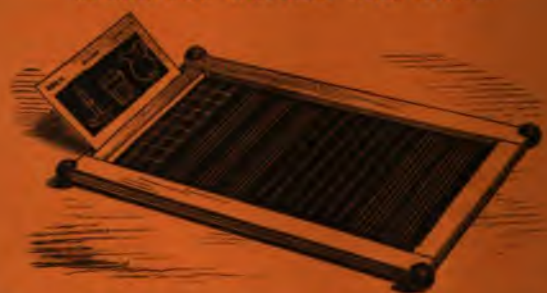

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THOUGH this work has been but recently published, it has met with an unparalleled success, and the Publishers have received, from all parts of the country, the strongest commendations of its merits.

The following is an extract from a private communication written by one of the most accomplished and best known teachers of the day:

The admirable points in the book are:

First.—The division into the Oral and the Text Course. Mr. Kerl is perfectly correct in saying that the best informed teachers agree in this arrangement. The Oral method, with blackboard exercises, is indeed the only natural way in which the subject of grammar can be presented to beginners; and Mr. K. is, so far as I know, the only author who has united the two courses in one book. He begins with sentences, with the simple construction of which he familiarizes the learner by numerous examples. He then passes to Parts of Speech, and the explanations of these, pages, 17, 18, 19, leave scarce anything to be desired. The remarks on "Blackboard Exercises," pages, 27, 28, 29, will prove of the greatest advantage to the teacher, and they bring out a feature that distinguishes

this work from other elementary books. Mr. K. has a profound sympathy with the teacher, and never loses an opportunity of helping him when and where he can by his suggestions.

Second.—I am sure that every teacher of grammar must thank the author for the introduction of the three pages, 52, 53, 54, which he styles "Criticisms." The errors of slang and bad grammar, springing from the street, and not less, perhaps, from home and social life, are handled in Mr. K.'s best style. This forms a very striking chapter in the book, and is most appropriately placed in the Oral Course; for the sooner these corrections are begun in the school-training of children, the better.

Third.—The abundance, as well as general suitableness of the exercises throughout the book appear to me most admirable. Constant repetition is the great hammer that brings things into permanent shape in a child's mind, and Mr. K. has made abundant use of this powerful auxiliary. From page 32 to page 50 contains more class-room material of this description, arranged in a natural way, than can be found in any other book of the kind. The steady work, which these examples compel, is well brought out on pages 87, 88, in the formation of nouns from verbs, adjectives or other nouns. In fact, it would hardly seem possible for a child of common capacity, beyond ten or eleven years of age, to go through the abounding exercises on these two pages, and not acquire a perfect acquaintance with the etymology of nouns and pronouns. Again, the grouping of these two parts of speech appears to me an improvement on the old plan of separate treatment.

Fourth.—The combination of the Rules of Syntax with the Parts of Speech to which these rules relate. This is a manifest improvement, and must strike teachers as filling a great want apparent in works heretofore. For a pupil having mastered the etymology of nouns and pronouns, for example, is in a condition to apply all the rules of syntax that relate to them. Why, then, should he learn all this etymology, and then pass at once to the other parts of speech, forgetting what he has already learned before he has had an opportunity to fix their uses thoroughly on his mind by means of Syntax?

Fifth.—This is not all the improvement that Mr. K. has made at this point. He has introduced exercises on False Syntax at the same early stage. Thus, for example, the pupil learns the etymology of nouns and pronouns. He then acquires their correct use by parsing, and the application of all the rules of syntax that relate to them. Finally, he is immediately introduced to a most thorough series of examples in False Syntax which he is expected

to correct according to the rules he has learned in Syntax and Etymology. In the older grammars the etymology of all the parts of speech is first finished up, then come the rules of Syntax with exceptions and some meager examples, lastly at the end of the books appear corrections of False Syntax. Probably no exercise has been more neglected than this, and it has been partly owing to the fact that these "corrections" have been placed at the end of the grammars, and for the most part confined to larger treatises. It is our deliberate opinion that no training in grammar would do more for the correct speech of our youth, than a thorough course in False Syntax, such as Mr. K.'s book presents. These examples are both numerous and exhaustive, and are so admirably arranged in their proper place, as to furnish of themselves a claim on the attention of teachers, were there even no other striking merit in the book.

Sixth.—The structural Analysis of sentences is also carried on in connection with the etymology and syntax, and not placed in a separate part of the book, as though it were a distinct subject. Mr. K. in his previous works, had already established his reputation so thoroughly in the treatment of Analysis, that it is unnecessary for me to say more on that head.

Seventh.—Perhaps the very finest part of the book is the "General Rules" for the use of language, and the numerous examples of errors to be corrected, to be found on pages from 203 to 215 inclusive. Here are 14 pages as full of matter suited for the school-room as could be constructed, and in the study of which even adult students would find the greatest profit. Particularly noticeable is the very striking portion on the use of prepositions, pages 208, 209, for which Mr. K. has our most hearty thanks.

Eighth.—These General Rules are followed by 14 pages—216 to 229—on "Modifications of Syntax," in which the Figures of Speech, as well as other modifications, are treated of, in connection with copious and illustrative examples, compelling careful study in and out of school, and are in Mr. Kerl's best, as well as original manner. Take, for example, as illustrating his original treatment, pages 222, 223, on the "modification of Syntax by variety of sentence," or "sentence structure." Nor are pages 226, 227, on "Poetic License," less striking.

Ninth.—As if leaving abundance of good wine—some may say his best—to the last, the book ends with a chapter on Analysis, Parsing and Idioms, remarkably original, and hitherto not found in school treatises on grammar. Perhaps in no department of language are the acute observation, the breadth and grasp of Mr. Kerl's mind, his readiness to apprehend and resolve grammatical difficulties, more clearly apparent than in these last pages, and we

offer it as a suggestion, that he could, perhaps, do no better piece of work for teachers and advanced students than the enlarging of this collection. It may be that all acute minded teachers would not agree with his disposition of difficult idioms, but the great body of the profession would gladly welcome a strong hand and steady head like his, capable of supplying that help, not to be found in school treatises; and, if to be found in higher works, then only amid a jumble of matter, after a search so toilsome as none but the most assiduous students will undertake.

Tenth.—I have said little about "Definitions." In these Mr. K. has usually consulted both brevity and clearness. I believe that many of them are improvements on the old definitions that have run so long in the older books. Wherever he has differed from these, it will be found, I think, that this difference is greatly to the advantage of the student, in both originality and terseness.

IN CONCLUSION:

These opinions will, I presume, be found sufficiently extended to show you what I think of the "Shorter Course on Grammar." Its virtues are so sterling as to impress any earnest teacher, on careful examination, and I am quite sure that you will agree with me in thinking that the best tribute I can pay to Mr. Kerl's book is what I end by saying, that the examination has raised my estimate of him as the most full-minded and original of our American School-Grammarians.

The book, it appears to me, must go; it may require time, money and energy; but it must eventually find hearty recognition among the young and earnest of the profession.

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PART FOUR.

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HAPPILY, that all-important part of education which goes to secure direct self-preservation, is in great part already provided for. Too momentous to be left to our blundering, Nature takes it into her own hands. While yet in its nurse's arms, the infant, by hiding its face and crying at the sight of a stranger, shows the dawning instinct to attain safety by flying from that which is unknown and may be dangerous; and when it can walk, the terror it manifests if an unfamiliar dog comes near, or the screams with which it runs to its mother after any startling sight or sound, shows this instinct further developed. Moreover, knowledge subserving direct self-preservation is that which it is chiefly busied in acquiring from hour to hour. How to balance its body; how to control its movements so as to avoid collisions; what objects are hard, and will hurt if struck; what objects are heavy, and injure if they fall on the limbs; which things will bear the weight of the body, and which not; the pains inflicted by fire, by missiles, by sharp instruments—these, and various other pieces of infor-

mation needful for the avoidance of death or accident, it is ever learning. And when, a few years later, the energies go out in running, climbing, and jumping, in games of strength and games of skill, we see in all these actions by which the muscles are developed, the perceptions sharpened, and the judgment quickened, a preparation for the safe conduct of the body among surrounding objects and movements; and for meeting those greater dangers that occasionally occur in the lives of all. Being thus, as we say, so well cared for by Nature, this fundamental education needs comparatively little care from us. What we are chiefly called upon to see, is, that there shall be free scope for gaining this experience, and receiving this discipline,—that there shall be no such thwarting of Nature as that by which stupid schoolmistresses commonly prevent the girls in their charge from the spontaneous physical activities they would indulge in; and so render them comparatively incapable of taking care of themselves in circumstances of peril.

This, however, is by no means all that is comprehended in the education that prepares for direct self-preservation. Besides guarding the body against mechanical damage or destruction, it has to be guarded against injury from other causes—against the disease and death that follow breaches of physiologic law. For complete living it is necessary, not only that sudden annihilations of life shall be warded off; but also that there shall be escaped the incapacities and the slow annihilation which unwise habits entail. As, without health and energy, the industrial, the parental, the social, and all other activities become more or less impossible; it is clear that this secondary kind of direct self-preservation is only less important than the primary kind; and that knowledge tending to secure it should rank very high.

It is true that here, too, guidance is in some measure already supplied. By our various physical sensations and desires, Nature has insured a tolerable conformity to the chief requirements. Fortunately for us, want of food, great heat, extreme cold, produce promptings too peremptory to be disregarded. And would men habitually obey these and all like promptings when less strong, comparatively few

evils would arise. If fatigue of body or brain were in every case followed by desistance; if the oppression produced by a close atmosphere always led to ventilation; if there were no eating without hunger, or drinking without thirst; then would the system be but seldom out of working order. But so profound an ignorance is there of the laws of life, that men do not even know that their sensations are their natural guides, and (when not rendered morbid by long-continued disobedience) their trustworthy guides. So that though, to speak teleologically, Nature has provided efficient safeguards to health, lack of knowledge makes them in a great measure useless.

If any one doubt the importance of an acquaintance with the fundamental principles of physiology as a means to complete living, let him look around and see how many men and women he can find in middle or later life who are thoroughly well. Occasionally only do we meet with an example of vigorous health continued to old age; hourly do we meet with examples of acute disorder, chronic ailment, general debility, premature decrepitude. Scarcely is there one to whom you put the question, who has not, in the course of his life, brought upon himself illnesses which a little knowledge would have saved him from. Here is a case of heart disease consequent on a rheumatic fever that followed reckless exposure. There is a case of eyes spoiled for life by overstudy. Yesterday the account was of one whose long-enduring lameness was brought on by continuing, spite of the pain, to use a knee after it had been slightly injured. And to-day we are told of another who has had to lie by for years, because he did not know that the palpitation he suffered from, resulted from overtaxed brain. Now we hear of an irremediable injury that followed some silly feat of strength; and, again, of a constitution that has never recovered from the effects of excessive work needlessly undertaken. While on all sides we see the perpetual minor ailments which accompany feebleness. Not to dwell on the natural pain, the weariness, the gloom, the waste of time and money thus entailed, only consider how greatly ill-health hinders the discharge of all duties—makes business often impossible, and always more difficult; produces an irrita-

bility fatal to the right management of children; puts the functions of citizenship out of the question; and makes amusement a bore. Is it not clear that the physical sins—partly our forefathers' and partly our own—which produce this ill-health, deduct more from complete living than anything else? and to a great extent make life a failure and a burden instead of a benefaction and a pleasure?

To all which add the fact, that life, besides being thus immensely deteriorated, is also cut short. It is not true, as we commonly suppose, that a disorder or disease from which we have recovered, leaves us as before. No disturbance of the normal course of the functions can pass away and leave things exactly as they were. In all cases a permanent damage is done—not immediately appreciable, it may be, but still there; and along with other such items which Nature in her strict account-keeping never drops, will tell against us to the inevitable shortening of our days. Through the accumulation of small injuries it is that constitutions are commonly undermined, and break down, long before their time. And if we call to mind how far the average duration of life falls below the possible duration, we see how immense is the loss. When, to the numerous partial deductions which bad health entails, we add this great final deduction, it results that ordinarily more than one-half of life is thrown away.

Hence, knowledge which subserves direct self-preservation by preventing this loss of health, is of primary importance. We do not contend that possession of such knowledge would, by any means, wholly remedy the evil. For it is clear that in our present phase of civilization men's necessities often compel them to transgress. And it is further clear that, even in the absence of such compulsion, their inclinations would frequently lead them, spite of their knowledge, to sacrifice future good to present gratification. But we do contend that the right knowledge impressed in the right way would effect much; and we further contend that as the laws of health must be recognized before they can be fully conformed to, the imparting of such knowledge must precede a more rational living—come when that may. We infer that as vigorous health and its accompanying high spirits are larger elements of

happiness than any other things whatever, the teaching how to maintain them is a teaching that yields in moment to no other whatever. And therefore we assert that such a course of physiology as is needful for the comprehension of its general truths, and their bearings on daily conduct, is an all-essential part of a rational education.

Strange that the assertion should need making! Stranger still that it should need defending! Yet are there not a few by whom such a proposition will be received with something approaching to derision? Men who would blush if caught saying Iphigénia instead of Iphigenía, or would resent as an insult any imputation of ignorance respecting the fabled labors of a fabled demi-god, show not the slightest shame in confessing that they do not know where the Eustachian tubes are, what are the actions of the spinal cord, what is the normal rate of pulsation, or how the lungs are inflated. While anxious that their sons should be well up in the superstitions of two thousand years ago, they care not that they should be taught anything about the structure and functions of their own bodies—nay, would even disapprove such instruction. So overwhelming is the influence of established routine! So terribly in our education does the ornamental override the useful!

HERBERT SPENCER.

BENEFITS OF LAUGHTER.—Probably there is not the remotest corner or little inlet of the minute blood vessels of the body that does not feel some wavelet from the great convulsion produced by hearty laughter shaking the central man. The blood moves more lively—probably its chemical, electric or vital condition is distinctly modified—it conveys a different impression to all the organs of the body, as it visits them on that particular mystic journey, when the man is laughing, from what it does at other times. And thus it is that a good laugh lengthens a man's life by conveying a distinct and additional stimulus to the vital forces. The time may come when physicians, attending more closely than they do now to the innumerable subtle influences which the soul exerts upon its tenement of clay, shall prescribe to a torbid patient "so many peals of laughter, to be undergone at such and such a time," just as they do that far more objectionable prescription—a pill or an electric or galvanic shock.

THE SECRETS OF THE EARTH.

THE work of constructing railways in this country, and the innumerable excavations made for precious metals, have led within a short time to not a few important discoveries in ethnology, as well as in relation to prehistoric incidents and phenomena, and will doubtless lead to many more. The remains of a once populous city have been found in the very heart of the continent—a city dotted all over with mysterious towers, in the top story of which, connected with those below by no ladder or staircase, one solitary skeleton is seen, while no human remains can be discovered anywhere else. In the wilds of Nevada, or the arid plains of Mariposa, the bones of some gigantic mammal have been disinterred. Again, among the supposed haunts of tribes that preceded the Aztecs, evidence is stumbled on that makes it necessary to assign a far earlier period to the first occupation of the continent by our race than any hitherto accepted or pronounced credible. In the New World, with its vast lakes, and virgin forests, and solemn, far-stretching prairies, vestiges of man are traced, and signs of the work of his hand are found which are declared by antiquarians to have existed long before the remotest epoch of recorded history.

But, while these discoveries are being made in the New World, we must not suppose that none are taking place in the Old. The explorations in Central Africa, in Australia, and other once totally unknown regions, are yearly adding to our stock of knowledge, and, from what, to most of us, are the more interesting lands of classical antiquity, fresh details are constantly supplied. There are men who, regardless of the din of war, indifferent to the seductions of gain, and able to dispense with the charms of society, devote themselves to researches that may inure to the common enlightenment of their kind. Such a person is Mr. George Finlay, who, having his headquarters at Athens, sallies forth to different famous spots of Greece—like, for instance, the plains of Marathon, where great numbers are known to have fallen—and delves in the earth for weapons, ornaments, or any other fragments that may tell a fresh story or serve to

connect and verify old ones. Mr. Finlay has obtained in the tumulus at Marathon a rich store of obsidian and other arrow-heads. He now possesses no fewer than 250 Greek weapons, or fragments of weapons—axes, hammers and spear-heads, being most numerous; and he affirms that the oldest antiquities in a country long visited by able observers in search of these relics, have hitherto, by some unaccountable oversight, almost entirely escaped notice. Mr. Finlay is also persuaded that when the lakes of Greece are carefully examined by skillful persons, evidences will be found of lake-dwellings similar to those of Switzerland, Italy, Ireland and Scotland. Assuredly no more attractive and delightful field of archæological research can be imagined than that of the land of Cadmus and Homer, of Plato and Leonidas.

Hardly a less interesting field, however, exists under the surface of the country Mr. Hawthorne called "Our Old Home." Some subterranean discoveries have lately been made, one of which, that of the "Victoria Cave," bids fair, it is said, to throw light on the condition of the Romano-Celtic inhabitants of Ribblesdale after the withdrawal of the Roman legions. The Battle of Hastings seems far off to most of us, but the contents of the "Victoria Cave" give tidings of an era far earlier. Among the articles hitherto found there, are the bones and teeth of the Celtic short-horn, the goat and the horse, and some remains of red deer and roe deer, "evidently the refuse of human food." There were likewise fragments of pottery, bone pins, "various nondescript articles in antler and bone," stone pot-boilers, and "perforated disks of stone which had been used as spindle-whorls." More interesting than these, or the bronze, harp-shaped brooches usually found among Roman remains, were two brooches of gilt-bronze, "of a sigmoid shape, and adorned with a singularly beautiful pattern in blue, yellow, red and green enamel." These are pronounced undoubtedly purely Celtic. Other Celtic ornaments have also been found, some of them very delicately enameled, and consisting of armlets and the like. Coins, showing the date when these deposits were made, range from the time of Trajan to a few years later. It is supposed that the persons who brought

these objects to the cave must have fled thither for safety—probably from some incursion of Picts or Scots—since people using articles of such luxury would hardly have chosen so dismal and unwholesome a retreat, save under the spur of necessity.

What renders the "Victoria Cave" more extraordinary and noteworthy still is the fact that, below the strata in which the above-named articles were discovered, traces of a still older epoch have subsequently been found. Bone harpoons and beads, and pieces of the skeletons of bears and horses, with the usual signs of fire and of food, show the presence of man at a time long anterior to the invasion of Julius Cæsar. Thus one discovery leads to another, since what has served one generation as a refuge, naturally answers the same purpose for generations to come. It is highly probable that, when further cave discoveries are made in the interior of our own continent, additional and most desirable enlightenment will be afforded touching the human beings who dwelt in America ages before Columbus turned his adventurous prow toward the West, or even before the Phœnicians and Carthaginians first planted their colonies in Iberia.—*N. Y. Times.*

THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

FEW studies are more important than that of history. After a child has learned to read with tolerable ease, and has acquired a knowledge of some of the elements of geography, we believe that in common with his other studies, such as arithmetic, spelling and writing, the study of history, if properly directed, is the most profitable exercise to which his attention can be turned. It brings him in contact with men and things, and enlarges his views as no other study does, besides furnishing him with a rich fund of facts for future use. Whatever the position in life to which he may eventually be called, the knowledge he acquires from a properly supervised and faithfully pursued

course of historical studies, will give him a vantage ground and a power which those who have neglected this study do not enjoy, and will in vain covet. But, if he is to become a public speaker, whether in the pulpit or the halls of legislation, at the bar, or on the platform as an occasional lecturer, there is no other one acquirement that will clothe him with power as a speaker like an intimate acquaintance with history. It furnishes him with an inexhaustible mine of facts and illustrations, from which to draw and forge arguments that shall strike the minds of his hearers with irresistible force. To be convinced of this, one needs but to look at the eloquent and powerful speakers of any land or any age, as for instance, of our land and day. They are men versed in history, men who can summon up at will the events and characters of other days, to act the part of witnesses to sustain them in their positions. As, in stating facts of a doubtful or marvellous nature, the corroborating testimony of two or three impartial and unimpeachable witnesses is overwhelming in removing all vestiges of incredulity concerning your statements, so the facts and illustrations drawn from the records of the past, afford convincing and overwhelming evidence in support of the position of the public speaker who is familiar with those records, and knows when and where to call them in to testify in his behalf. If knowledge is power under any circumstances, the public speaker's familiarity with history is especially such. He knows it, he realizes it, and those who hear him acknowledge it. Oftentimes the speaker's eloquence, the wierd power which he exercises over his hearers, is due solely to his familiarity with the history and circumstances of the subject of which he is treating. Without that knowledge, his words would be tame and powerless, if indeed, he were not obliged to be altogether dumb.

When we consider, then, how widely the field opens in this country for public speakers, and how large a proportion of our population are called upon more or less to address public audiences, it must be seen that the study of history can hardly be secondary in importance to any other. It is, indeed, a downright wrong not to make ample provision in all our schools for a general and thorough course of

historical instruction. Nor should it be left discretionary with the pupil whether he shall study it or not. Young persons have very little idea of what is to be of use to them in after years. As reasonable would it be to leave it optional with them whether they should study arithmetic, orthography, or any other essential branch of knowledge. We have known several public speakers who have sorely lamented the loss of a proper course of historical instruction while they were young and their minds were susceptible to impressions likely to be deeper and to prove more lasting and useful than any of after years. Knowingly and deliberately to compel others to utter the same lamentation, is a positive, we had almost said an unpardonable, sin.

But there are several questions connected with this subject which deserve to be considered, though we cannot do justice to them in the space alloted to us here. How should history be taught? What history should be taught first? If taught from text-books, what should be the nature, character and form of such books? These and other questions naturally arise, the importance of a right answer to which, every one who understands how to teach history, realizes.

As to the *manner* of teaching, the use of a text-book, with the young, should by all means be adopted rather than the lecture. The knowledge gained by the latter mode is evanescent. It is not acquired. But the study of a text-book, so as to be able to relate facts and circumstances therefrom, fixes the knowledge received.

Again, history should never be studied without an open map, and one on a scale sufficiently large to give a clear idea of the localities mentioned. Whenever a place occurs for the first time (and even afterwards if the student cannot tell at once and definitely where it is, and what its surroundings are), its place should be ascertained on the map, and its relations to certain other and important points distinctly noted. This gives the student a clear idea of things, and awakens in the study an interest which otherwise he could not possibly have, and which it would be absurd to expect him to have.

We say nothing of the unreasonableness of requiring page after page to be committed to memory. The idea

that it gives one a command of language is more imaginary than real. The student, however young, should not be regarded as a parrot, but as a being with reflective powers, and powers of communication. Pass the *facts* clearly and properly before his mental vision, and the words with which to frame the pictures thus impressed upon his memory will, after a little practice if not at once, come almost unbidden. And let it be remembered that the ability to express readily and clearly the conceptions of one's mind is no mean end to be attained, and should not be ignored, much less obstructed, in the study of history.

As to the character of the text-books used, they should neither be dry nor unreliable. The "compends" of our youthful days, and the equally unphilosophical "School Histories" of more recent date, consisting of bare facts and dates, the bones of history, without the flesh and blood that should accompany them, and the warmth that should animate them, are not the text-books needed. Neither would we have anything to do with those heartless and soulless books of German conception, which rob ancient history of more than half its interest and value by converting facts into myths, and teaching as fable what historians of other days regarded as veritable realities. Histories written in the interest of certain parties or cliques whether in church or State, and which distort facts more or less should also be avoided as far as possible. And yet, as all things human are imperfect, a perfectly unbiassed history is hardly to be found, though authors have doubtless written who have conscientiously aimed to remove the curtain and bid us look in upon the past just as it was in its day. Such are the books to be sought and studied. If they cannot be found, then such should be adopted as come nearest to this character.

S. W. W.

A QUARRY of marble has been discovered near Leeville, in Wilson County, Tenn., which is pronounced by Dr. Safford, State Geologist of Tennessee, to be equal in durability to the finest Italian marble. It is said to exist there in great abundance.

THE LAW AS TO CORPORAL PUNISHMENT. [1]

PART SECOND.

THE Supreme Court of Vermont recently gave a very able opinion, from which we extract the following: A school-master has the right to inflict reasonable corporal punishment. He must exercise reasonable judgment and discretion in determining when to punish and to what extent. In determining upon what is a reasonable punishment, various considerations must be regarded—the nature of the offense, the apparent motive and disposition of the offender, the influence of his example and conduct upon others, and the sex, age, size and strength of the pupil to be punished. Among reasonable persons much difference prevails as to the circumstances which will justify the infliction of punishment, and the extent to which it may properly be administered. On account of this difference of opinion and the difficulty which exists in determining what is a reasonable punishment, and the advantage which the master has by being on the spot to know all the circumstances, the manner, look, tone, gestures of the offender (which are not always easily described), and thus to form a correct opinion as to the necessity and extent of the punishment, considerable allowance should be made to the teacher by way of protecting him in the exercise of his discretion. Especially should he have this indulgence when he appears to have acted from good motives, and not from anger or malice. Hence the teacher is not to be held liable on the ground of excess of punishment, unless the punishment is *clearly* excessive, and would be held so in the general judgment of reasonable men. If the punishment be thus clearly excessive, then the master should be held liable for such excess, though he acted from good motives in inflicting the punishment, and, in his own judgment, considered it necessary and not excessive. But if there is any reasonable doubt whether the punishment was excessive, the master should have the benefit of that doubt. (Lander *v.* Seaver, 32 Vermont R. 123; 19 Ib.

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1 From WALSH'S SCHOOL LAWYER.

108; 4 Gray, 37; 2 Dever. and Bat. 365; 3 Salk. 47; Reeves' Domestic Rel. 374, 375; Wharton's Amer. Crim. Law, 1259; and 1 Sanders on Pl. and Ev. 144).

A Lady Teacher in Trouble.—This was an indictment for assault and battery. The defendant, Rachel Pendergrass, kept a school for small children, and punished one of them with a rod to such an extent as to leave marks, all of which were such as were likely to pass away in a short time, and leave no permanent injury. The judge instructed the jury that, if they believed that the child (six or seven years of age) had been whipped by the defendant at that tender age, with either a switch or other instrument, so as to produce the marks described to them, the defendant was guilty. The jury under this charge returned a verdict of guilty; but Rachel took exceptions to the charge, and the case was afterward argued in the higher court, in which the following opinion was delivered for that gallant court by Judge Gaston: It is not easy to state with precision the power which the law grants to school-masters and teachers with respect to the correction of their pupils. It is analogous to that which belongs to parents, and the authority of the teacher is regarded as a delegation of parental authority. One of the most sacred duties of parents is to train up and qualify their children for becoming useful and virtuous members of society; this duty can not be effectually performed without the ability to command obedience, to control stubbornness, to quicken diligence, and to reform bad habits; and to enable him to exercise this salutary sway, he is armed with the power to administer moderate correction when he shall believe it to be just and necessary. The teacher is the substitute of the parent; is charged in part with the performance of his duties, and in the exercise of these delegated duties is invested with his power. The law has not undertaken to prescribe stated punishments for particular offenses, but has contented itself with the general grant of the power of moderate correction, and has confided the graduation of punishments, within the limits of this grant, to the discretion of the teacher. The line which separates moderate correction from immoderate punishment can only be ascertained by reference to general principles. The welfare of

the child is the main purpose for which punishment is permitted to be inflicted. Any punishment, therefore, which may seriously endanger life, limbs, or health, or shall disfigure the child, or cause any other permanent injury, may be pronounced in itself immoderate, as not only being unnecessary for, but inconsistent with, the purpose for which correction is authorized. But any correction, however severe, which produces temporary pain only, and no permanent ill, can not be so pronounced, since it may have been necessary for the reformation of the child, and does not injuriously affect its future welfare. We hold, therefore, that it may be laid down as a general rule, that teachers exceed the limits of their authority when they cause lasting mischief, but act within the limits of it when they inflict temporary pain. When the correction administered is not in itself immoderate, and therefore beyond the authority of the teacher, its legality or illegality must depend entirely, we think, on the *quo animo* with which it was administered. Within the sphere of his authority, the master is the judge when correction is required, and of the degree of correction, necessary; and like all others intrusted with a discretion, he can not be made penally responsible for error of judgment, but only for wickedness of purpose. The best and the wisest of mortals are weak and erring creatures, and in the exercise of functions in which their judgment is to be the guide can not be rightfully required to engage for more than honesty of purpose and diligence of exertion. His judgment must be *presumed* correct, because he is the judge, and also because of the difficulty of proving the offense or accumulation of offenses that called for correction; of showing the peculiar temperament, disposition and habits of the individual corrected; and of exhibiting the various milder means that may have been ineffectually used before correction was resorted to. But the master may be punished when he does not transcend the powers granted, if he grossly abuses them. If he use his authority as a cover for malice, and under pretense of administering correction gratify his own bad passions, the mask of the judge shall be taken off, and he shall stand amenable to justice as an individual not invested with judicial power. We believe

that these are the rules applicable to the decision of the case before us. If they be, there was error in the instruction given to the jury, that if the child was whipped by the defendant so as to occasion the marks described by the prosecutor, the defendant had exceeded her authority, and was guilty as charged. The marks were all temporary, and in a short time all disappeared. No permanent injury was done to the child. The only appearances that could warrant the belief or suspicion that the correction *threatened* permanent injury were the bruises on the neck and the arms; and these, to say the least, were too equivocal to justify the court in assuming that they did threaten such mischief. We think that the instruction on this point should have been, that unless the jury could clearly infer from the evidence that the correction inflicted had produced, or was in its nature calculated to produce, lasting injury to the child, it did not exceed the limits of the power which had been granted to the defendant. We think, also, that the jury should have been further instructed, that however severe the pain inflicted, and however, in their judgment, it might seem disproportionate to the alleged negligence or offense of so young and tender a child, yet if it did not produce or threaten lasting mischief, it was their duty to acquit the defendant; unless the facts testified induced a conviction in their minds that the defendant did not act honestly in the performance of duty, according to her sense of right, but under the pretext of duty was gratifying malice. We think that rules less liberal toward teachers can not be laid down without breaking in upon the authority necessary for preserving discipline and commanding respect, and that, although these rules leave it in their power to commit acts of indiscreet severity with legal impunity, these indiscretions will probably find their check and correction in parental affection and in public opinion; and if they should not, that they must be tolerated as a part of those imperfections and inconveniences which no human laws can wholly remove or redress. (The State *v.* Pendergrass, 2 Dever. and Bat. R. 365). The opinion of this court, that "the welfare of the child is the main purpose for which punishment is permitted to be inflicted," may be correct, but the welfare of the school can be hardly less important.

ENERGY OF WILL.

IT is energy of will that is the soul of the intellect; wherever it is, there is life; where it is not all is dullness and despondency and desolation. People who have no experience of it imagine that it is destructive to the nerves, exhaustive of the animal spirits; that it aggravates the wear and tear of life excessively. But this is an idle notion, as idle as the habits and humors of those who entertain it. We leave it to any man who knows its real effect, to strike the balance—to compare the exhaustion of an indolent day with that of an active one; to say in which of the two cases the subject is in better heart for work and fitter to undergo it. Whatever we may be about, one thing, we believe, is certain, that if the spirits are spent by energy they are utterly wasted by idleness; at worst, energy can only end in relaxation—it is superior to it for a while, and possibly at last may fall into it; whereas, idleness is actual relaxation from first to last, and can be nothing else. But even this view, favorable as it is, is yet not favorable enough to be just. The fact is, that violence is not necessary to energy any more than tyranny is to kingship; on the contrary, it is the greatest energy that does the most work.

Energy, literally from the Greek, means inward-workingness; the blooming of the flower is energy, the increase of fruit is energy, the growth of the body is energy; yet, in all these there is no violence; the efficacy is not destructive, but vital; without it the whole frame must fall at once into corruption, with it, instead of corruption, we have life. But this, it may be said, is a refinement. It may be so, but it is true in fact, nevertheless. The gainsayer will find it difficult to produce anything from the subject of surer or more essential truth.

THEY are fond of titles in the East. Among his other high-sounding titles, the King of Ava has that of "Lord of Twenty-four Umbrellas." This looks as though he had prepared for a long *reign*.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART TWELFTH.

THE PEOPLE'S INFLUENCE, 1700–1870.

"*Past, and to come, seem best: things present, worst.*"
SECOND PART OF KING HENRY IV. Act I. Scene III.

THE AGE OF PROSE ROMANCE, 1830–1870.

THE consideration of the last forty years in the history of our literature presents many difficulties. Men are always so ready to speak in glowing terms of the "good old times," and of "the good time coming," that the tendency is very strong to under-value the good to be found in the present. How finely has the dramatist exhibited a phase of this trait in the passage from which the line at the head of this paper is taken!

> "What trust is in these times?
> They, that when Richard lived, would have him die,
> Are now become enamoured on his grave;
> Thou, that threw'st dust upon his goodly head,
> When through proud London he came sighing on
> After the admired heels of Bolingbroke,
> Cry'st now, 'O earth, yield us that king again,
> And take thou this!'"

The English under Richard II., last of the Plantagenets, thought their "good time" would surely come if Henry Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, could found a Lancastrian line; but only three months passed before the people, or a portion of them at least, said "the former times were better than these," and, in Shakespeare's words, exclaimed, "O earth, yield us that king again, and take thou this!" So it is with one who attempts to put an estimate upon the worth of contemporary genius, or who endeavors to indicate the tendency of contemporary scholarship.

We have seen a great conflict on English soil, between Romanism on the one hand, and Protestantism on the other, which culminated in the seventeenth century, when the political and religious Puritans gained ascendency there. A

second great struggle wiped away the pretentions of royal prerogative, when the revolution of 1688 resulted in the abdication of the despotic James II., and the accession of William and Mary. And now, we are told that a third great revolution, no less distinctly defined, and no less important, is quietly working in England. A distinguished English thinker points out the progress of this revolution, (which, he says, is aimed at the abolition of monopolies,) in the Catholic and Jewish emancipation from political disabilities; in the two great British Reform Bills; in the abolition of the East India monopoly; in the gradual extinction of protective duties; in the abolition of educational monopolies; and in other movements which give our times a right to be called an Age of Progress.

The wonderful progress of the present generation has not been without an effect upon literature. Dr. Craik says that literature is elaborated out of thought and feeling, as honey is elaborated out of vegetable matter by the transmuting skill of the bee, and that it sympathises, to a considerable degree, with the reigning spirit of its age. Is this correct?

The romantic aspirations of the last generation resulted in a wonderful body of poets, whose names have just been reviewed. What names first rise to our lips as we speak of our contemporary writers? As we look at our shelves and see that long row of novels that begin with "Waverley," we affectionately utter the name of Scott. It points us to the change that occurred when Sir Walter laid away the minstrel's harp, and, taking up the pen of the romancer, began to depict upon his immortal pages those scenes in Scottish history that charmed him, and that are now a source of rational enjoyment to so many thousands in Britain and America. It is a hundred years ago, this month, since Sir Walter Scott was born, and his works are now being published in an elegant edition, in the land of his birth, in commemoration of the fact. As we think of Scott we remember Jeanie Deans, and Amy Robsart, the glens of Scotland, and the graces of Kenilworth; Ivanhoe and Rowena; Dandy Dinmont, and Dominie Sampson; Rebecca, the Jewess, and how many more of his characters which crowd upon the delighted memory! We remember the halls and turrets,

the meadows and trees of Abbotsford; the graceful ruins of Melrose he loved so well; and the arches of Dryburgh that now protect his ashes from molestation.

The name of Scott, and the nature of his romances, lead to a remark upon the greater purity of the novels that take a place in the literature of our generation as compared with those our ancestors read. Our great grandmothers sat with their needlework, in the family circle, while the stories of intrigue and debauchery were read from the fashionable books of Mrs. Aphra Behn, and Mrs. Manley—books which have long ago been laid away from sight in merited oblivion. It is said that Scott's grandmother once asked him to read to her one of those tales that were so popular and pleasurable in her youth. Passing as lightly as he could over a few pages, but blushing even then, the novelist read only to be indignantly interrupted by the old lady, who exclaimed, "Tak' awa' yer bonnie buik," and then remarked upon the change that had come over society in her day.

Glancing again along our bookshelves, we are reminded of another gentle romancer, as our eye strikes "The History of New York, from the beginning of the World, to the end of the Dutch Dynasty." In imagination we see old Peter Stuyvesant, full of righteous indignation at some deed of the Yankees of Connecticut, hobbling along the Bouwerie on his wooden leg; we hear the echoes of the last trumpet-blast of Antony as he sinks beneath the billows of Spuyten Duyvel creek; we are startled at the old man, Rip Van Winkle, as he stands before us after his long sleep; and the lank form of Ichabod Crane reminds us of Sleepy Hollow, and carries us to the peaceful home at Sunnyside, the attractive resort of so many of this author's admiring readers.

We look again, and the unperturbed Samuel Pickwick smiles upon us, the first of a procession in which we recognize the immortal Wellers; Wilkins Micawber, wife and twins; Mr. Thomas Traddles, and "the dearest girl in the world;" David Copperfield, and his child-wife; Reginald Wilfer and the Vaneerings; the Cheeryble Brothers, and Mrs. Jellaby; Oliver Twist and Nicholas Nickleby—a procession that grows as we gaze, until, suddenly the scene is

covered with clouds, and the "Mystery of Edwin Drood," in its unfinished state, reminds us of how the pen dropped from the author's hand, and the world mourned because the sad message was one day carried by the trembling wires, over all the earth, "Charles Dickens is dead!"

The names of these three characteristic authors, of the period we are considering, seem to mark steps in the progress of the influence of the people upon literature. All of them are popular and influential, but does not the last-named address the mass of the people more directly than either of the others did? It would not be fair, however, to call Charles Dickens the most influential author of our generation, even while the press is laboring in vain to produce enough copies of his books.

We are tempted to speak at length of the influence of woman upon English literature. A very large body of women is now working in literary pursuits, and the fruit of their pens is often charming, sometimes forcible. That the general effect of the entrance of woman upon authorship has been beneficial, and that, as leaders and critics, they have carried forward the purifying process which we have mentioned, cannot be denied. Woman has furnished much literature for the young, and a very large number of novels, some of which have been wonderfully influential. Our journals and magazines are full of their productions. The style of writing in these periodicals being largely narrative, they furnish a field for the exercise of female genius that can hardly be excelled, and the fact that the novel is so exceedingly popular in our generation is also in favor of female authorship. How well these and other advantages have been improved, Charlotte Brontë, Mrs. Stowe, "George Eliot," Miss Austen, Miss Yonge, Miss Sewell, Miss Martineau, Miss Dodge, Miss Phelps, and many more may tell us.

A survey of the period before us shows that the department of prose romance has been cultivated more than any other; but we must not permit this fact to make us blind to the riches of our contemporary literature in other classes of works.

A remarkable feature in our day is the extent to which investigations have been carried in the physical sciences,

and no less important is the learning expended in the domain of pure thought. The establishment and maintenance of a journal of speculative philosophy, so far west as St. Louis, indicates a spread of thoughtfulness in America not to be forgotten. The establishment of great institutions of learning also, in which physical science has a very important place in the list of studies, is an indication of the influence of the practical nature of the popular scholarship.

Our age is remarkable for the number and importance of its historical students and authors, among whom it is only necessary to mention Macaulay, Motley, Froude, Carlyle, Bancroft, Prescott, and Milman.

The amount of thought that is now expended upon topics connected with religion, doctrine, Biblical criticism, and such like subjects, is so great as to remind one of the days of the Puritans in England, or of the era of Jonathan Edwards and his contemporaries in this country. We see Froude coming to the discussion of Calvinism; the Duke of Argyle recording weighty thoughts on the Reign of Law; F. W. Farrar, besides his Families of Speech, giving us an account of the ancient "Seekers after God;" and Drs. Hopkins and McCosh discussing questions in religious metaphysics in our family journals. Surely there is much thought among the people in this practical age!

And this brings us very naturally to the discussion of our periodical literature, probably the most influential of all the powers now used to affect the public mind. Every class in our society has its "organ," published at some regular period. Every shade of religious belief, almost every branch of scientific study, every trade, every college, every town has its paper or its magazine. There are magazines for boys, and magazines for girls; magazines for women, and for young men; journals for the clergyman, the artist, the book-buyer, the stock-broker, the grocer, the artisan, the mechanic, the entomologist, the astronomer, the farmer, the coach-maker, the horse-racer, the prize-fighter, the lawyer, the physician, and for other classes not mentioned. A portion of the literature furnished in these periodicals is of the best and highest grade, much of it is of good tendency, and a great part is baneful, sensational, and deadly in its in-

tellectual and moral influence. It enters our houses, it is in the hands of our sons and daughters, and a great responsibility is laid upon us in selecting from the mass such as may do good and not evil.

Those who have followed the series of which this is the last paper, have now marked the stages of growth by which the literature of our language, which originated in an insular corner of the world, has come to have an influence over the nations in every quarter.

Our language originated, as we have seen, in India, and the discovery of this fact is one of the most splendid achievements of philological research. The proof of the unity of the great Indo-European, or Aryan race, shows "that all those nations which have been most memorable in the history of the past, and which must be all but universally dominant in the history of the future, sprang from one common cradle, and are closely united by identity of origin and similarity of gifts."

By the late treaty of Washington, the first step appears to have been taken in the direction of settlement of international disputes without bloodshed. Two branches of the Aryan race having clasped hands in friendly embrace over the ocean, may we not hope the example of peace will be widely followed? There has been bloody war between the British and Indian branches of the Aryan race—but now that the kinship is established, let us hope to see them dwell together in peace.

Let us end our discussion of this theme in the eloquent words of Mr. Farrar.

"Contemplating this great tidal march of the Aryan emigration as it encircles the globe, let us see that it be for the cleansing and the blessing of the world. Then it shall be with us as though the Angel of the Nations had waved his hand, and calling to him the powers which guard the progress and happiness of mankind, had addressed their leader in the words of our great poet:

> 'Uzziel, half these draw off, and coast the South
> With strictest watch; these others wheel the North,
> Our circuit meets full West.'"

ARTHUR GILMAN.

SUBURBAN SAUNTERINGS.

PART SECOND.

JULY 12, 1868.—Being, in the course of a long walk, near the boundary line of the towns of O—— and L——, I ask a countryman where it runs. "Wall, I don't know exactly; I'm a stranger here—only been here three or four years." I got the desired information from a boy picking berries.

July 17.—In the little grove near my house I count the following trees of native growth: two fine black birches; chestnuts; oaks; tulip poplars; dogwoods; hickory; common pine. There may be still other varieties unknown to me.

July 19.—There is a mistaken prejudice against taking hearty exercise in summer. A skilful gymnast has assured me that he has found himself better for frequenting the gymnasium during all the hot weather—no worse certainly. I have made four pedestrian excursions in July and August, of from four to five weeks each, and between the Maryland and the Canada line, without the slightest inconvenience (unless dust and perspiration be thought such), and with permanent gain in strength. Much, of course, depends on choosing the right time of day for walking; but it is surprising how many summer days are favorable for a tramp in the early morning. Between 5 : 30 and 8 : 30 A.M., of the day whose date I have given, I walked nearly five miles for the sake of a bath at the foot of some fine falls in a deep glen, and as many back, arriving before breakfast. This may be thought not worth the candle; but as a change of clothes was necessary anyhow, a light sponging off restored the coolness obtained in the rocky pool.

August 20, 1868.—The maples begin thus early to put on their autumn tints. Their *green* life lasts barely four months, in this latitude.

August 26.—In riding through the central part of New York, I noticed that the elms were stiff, and the trunks very

much subdivided. This is characteristic of the tree as one goes north. There is a marked difference between the elms in the Hadley and Northampton meadows and those, say, at Lancaster or at Colebrook, in the Connecticut valley north of the White Mountains. One would find it difficult, though, to prefer the general scenery of either of the two river plains named to that of the other.

September 6, 1868.—A charming name this, for a country lane, in spite of its pretentiousness: "Sunset Avenue." It has the great merit of being appropriately bestowed, for the road is broad and solid, and leads straight to sun-down (a word, by the way, for which the Southerners have discovered the true correlative, *sun-up*). Nevertheless, one is reminded again of the pretentiousness after he has passed the sign-board; for on the left stretches a long, well-built stone wall, broken by imposing, though tolerably ugly gate-posts, behind all which, in the uncultivated field, one sees the foundation of the house that never was built, and wonders what change of fortune or of mind suppressed the labor of the architect and builder.

October 18, 1868.—The geologic feature of our range which lends it its picturesqueness of form and color, is the back-bone of trap rock which has been thrown up through the sandstone, with a degree of violence that greatly diversified the outlines and slopes of the range. "The deep, romantic chasm" which receives the falls mentioned above, is a cañon or more properly a chamber of the hard gray trap; and we have notches, large and small, that in the White Mountains would be regularly visited by fashionable pleasure-seekers. This day, turning the northern end of the range, we saw the beautiful spectacle of a bare bluff, composed of a layer of trap above, and a layer of the red sandstone beneath—the latter worked as a quarry. The scene was worthy of a painter.

November 8, 1868.—As often as not in copying nature, I draw badly; and the countryman who looked over my shoulder while I was trying to catch the proportions of the pine which forms our western landmark, neither aided me by his unsolicited presence nor encouraged me in regard to

the result of my sketching. However, he made me a little less miserable by telling me that at the elbow of the pine (which now looks twenty feet from the ground) is an iron hook, which twenty-three years ago was low enough for the farmer's wife of that day to reach with her clothes-line.

November 10, 1870.—The trap, when acted upon by sun and frost, crumbles into rubble that flows down from the summit, and sometimes, as in the Great Notch (which is deeply serrated), recalls the heaps of coal dust and shale which every traveler in the coal regions is familiar with. Sometimes the rubble begins at the very top, but usually, the trap being thrust up vertically, there is a sheer precipice of greater or less height above the débris which has split off from it. The grandest example of this sort of weathering is undoubtedly the Yosemite Valley, where the precipice immensely overtops the débris. A very wild and beautiful form occurs in the Dixville Notch and the plain beyond, in northern New Hampshire.

December.—The bird of this season of the year, for the suburban resident, is undoubtedly the gull, whose habits may be agreeably observed by one who will take his stand upon either end of a ferry-boat. My notes upon them are scantier than they might be. On rising from the water, gulls swing their legs to-and-fro until the flight is assured (after a few strokes), when they tuck them back under their tails with a one-two motion. I have seen one flying pretty rapidly make four beats of the wing a second. When hovering over the river in search of food, the head is kept in constant motion from side to side. The gull's note is not unlike a boatswain's whistle. It does not readily surrender its prey. In a stiff breeze I once saw one dip at least half a dozen times before it could carry off a long piece of offal which the wind caught, to the bird's annoyance.

P. CHAMITE.

A LEADING lecturer classifies his audience as follows: The "still-attentives," the "quick-responsives," the "hard-to-lifts," the "won't-applauds," and the "get-up-and-go-outs."

PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

YESTERDAY, after a hard day's work, I took up one of our daily papers which contained the report of the formation of an Association bearing the above title. Being very tired, I fell into a doze while perusing it, and dreamed that I was presiding at one of the earlier meetings for debate held by it. I thought that we had previously solved the important queries as to

"Whether the execution of Major Andre was justifiable?" also,

"Whether iron was not more valuable than gold?" etc., and that we were then about to be engaged in discussing

"Whether the milk of the cow was not more nutritive than the milk of the cocoanut?"

However, previous to the debate being opened, Brother Zadok Jones rose to a point of order, saying: that as religious subjects were tabooed by the society, he trusted no reflections would be cast on the Christian character and standing of the milkmen of this metropolis. It was true that they were under the necessity of distributing the article in which they dealt on the Sabbath, but many believed that, it being a work of necessity, if not (in the case of babies) of mercy, they were fully justified in so doing. Any attack upon them in consequence would not be admissible according to the rules of the association.

Brother Byron Brown spoke next, to demand that the fluid sold in New York under the name of "milk" should be understood by the brethren and sisters assembled, to be the "*bona-fide*" milk of cows. That, to assert that "the watering of milk does not improve its quality," or, "that it is not expedient to reward milkmen for performing that operation," would be introducing subjects of a politico-economical character, and that discussions on such subjects were not in order in that association.

To these objections brother Roland Robinson begged to add, that, as he fully expected that the physical condition of the monkeys of the West Indies, after the cocoanut harvest would be dragged into the debate, he respectfully

claimed to state, that he would regard any allusion to the atheistic Darwinian theory as a personal insult, and any reference to it was wholly subversive of the intents for which the association was instituted.

I forget the grounds taken by the speakers in the discussion which followed these remarks, with the exception of the statement of a humanitarian member of the name of Howard, who took occasion to assert, "that the condition of very many of the children of this metropolis was not only a disgrace to our religion, but a stain on the humanity of our people. That, having resided at Barbadoes, he knew that, leaving their moral status to the new sect of philosophers, the physical condition of the animals Dr. Darwin claimed as his relatives was superior to that of hundreds if not of thousands of the little ones now rushing rapidly to ruin in the streets of the so-called Christian city of New York." Of course, his diatribe was interspersed with cries of Order! Order! Chair, Chair, etc., etc., and, at the mention of the obnoxious name, brother Brown brandished a convenient inkstand. However, he was pacified without making any further demonstrations.

At the termination of the debate it was my duty to read the following notice:

Dr. Erasmus De Bunty will address the members of this Association in this Hall, on Thursday next, at 8 o'clock, P.M. Subject—"A glance at the probable mental caliber of the mollusks of the Tertiary Period." The lecture will be illustrated by a series of views of the New Jerusalem, showing the characters of the crustaceæ found on Mount Zion, with a distant view of the limpets on the rocks at the mouth of the river Jordan.

As the little boys formerly used to say when they came to a hard word "here we skip over." Time passes rapidly in a dream. Methought a year had vanished, and I was again presiding in the same hall, over the members of the same association. We had just concluded a warm debate on the following subject:

"*Resolved*, That it would be both wise and expedient to ordain a scale of rewards to successful competitors in public pedagogic life, which shall equal those now proffered by the public to such candidates in the Bar, the Bench, the Pulpit and the Forum."

Of course, this resolution was carried in the affirmative by a triumphant majority. Of the twenty-seven who were the minority, seventeen were studying for the law, and seven had an eye to the ministry. The other three (young ladies) were political aspirants.

The following questions were then handed to me to read before the society for consideration:

By Solomon Oldschool.—*Resolved,* "That it is easier to carry bricks than to rule refractory boys without a persuader."

By Jedediah Short.—*Resolved,* "That one intellectual producer is equal in real and national value to two traffickers, with three financiers thrown in."

By Susie Nipper.—*Resolved,* "That it is not sound economy to regale the son of an educational magnate with candy at sixty cents per pound, when cake at twenty cents per pound will accomplish the end desired."

By Jonathan Knownothing.—*Resolved,* "That Chinese in the schoos of St. Francisco is not needed in order to balance German in the schools of New York; and that probably it would be well for the people not to demand here the re-establishment of Babel."

By Doctor Syntax.—*Resolved,* "That consistency demands that the public sentimentality which has deprived the schoolmaster of his rattan should also disarm the policeman of his locust."

By Ezekiel Hardhead.—*Resolved,* "That it is commendable in teachers who are not competent instructors in the fundamental branches of education, to cover up their defects by introducing the 'ologies' as soon as possible."

By Sophie Slyboots.—*Resolved,* "That the old saw is right, and that it is not just that the financial sauce for one gander should be equal in quantity to that allotted to two geese."

By Christopher Hugenot.—*Resolved,* "That it is right and proper that a combined effort should be made to prohibit the reading of the 'Koran' in the public schools of Constantinople."

By Mortimer Martinet.—*Resolved,* "That thirty pupils ought to be the maximum of any class in our public schools."

By Joceline Jolly.—*Resolved,* "That this Hall be closed during the month of August."

After a suitable subject for debate had been selected for the next meeting, a notice was handed to me for publication, it read thus:

PUBLIC NOTICE.

Dingaway Pegg, Esq., Grand Master of the Noble Order of the Knights of St. Crispin, will harangue the members of the Public

School Teachers' Association, on the propriety and expediency of appointing two delegates to represent the association at the Labor Congress about to be convened at.....for the purpose of nominating candidates for the next presidential election.

Here my dog barked—and I awoke—remaining

Respectfully yours, R. W. HUME.

SCHOLASTIC POLITICS.

THE Public School is not only of use as a means of general enlightenment and a preventive of crime, but, viewed in other political aspects, may justly claim to be superior in value to any other agent in the service of the Union. In an address delivered at the Cooper Institute, Henry Ward Beecher declared, that—

"The Common School was one of the great engines by which the brotherhood feeling of society was maintained. It was fair that a man should rise as high as he could, but, if a rich man were stupid, he should be allowed to sink to the bottom—should find his own level. The boys of the lawyer or the doctor, or even of the minister, were not too good to sit side by side with the child of the washerwoman. Put the whole population through the Common School, and we should have a universal feeling of brotherhood among us."

The civilizing and humanizing influences that public schools shed upon our community are the best warrants we have for the duration of our Republic. A monarchy or an aristocracy may, but a true democracy cannot long exist without general education. But there is another view to be taken of this grave subject; it is, that, to our public schools we are indebted for that "unity of language" which distinguishes us among the great nations of the world. In a half century they have done more to effect this grand result for us than the government of England has been able to accomplish for its people in eight hundred years of almost uninterrupted sway. To the Christian who remembers that divers languages are traceable to the direct curse of the Deity, it is not too much to add, that to the influence and action of our public schools in this particular, we are indebted for a new hope worthy of a new world.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER XII.

A STRUGGLE of love and mutual affection was in full flame! A happy mother had enkindled it. Two happier daughters were ranked in opposition to her. A happy father, raising his right hand as if for a good-natured threat, seemed to oppose both parties. A fourth female voice, belonging to the youngest daughter, soon mingled in the chorus. Two young men, with faces bespeaking delight and happiness, appeared to act the parts of mediators, agreeing now with the one, now with the other party.

This interesting scene was enacted in the residence of the de Fernau family—not in Jadwiga de Fernau's proud mansion, but in the more modest house of Linda de Fernau, her former confidante, and her present husband's sister-in-law. Linda's husband, who held a President's commission under the Government, could not claim that house as his own, nor, indeed, did his family occupy the whole of it. It was only an elegant suite of rooms, which even the highest of German officeholders generally deem sufficient to maintain the dignity of their rank.

The corridor and the spacious sitting-room were hung with festive wreaths, in token of the "solemn betrothal" with two excellent young gentlemen, which the two oldest daughters of the house had celebrated the day before. Both the future husbands were nothing but plain citizens, but neither Mary nor Louisa de Fernau regretted that they were to sacrifice the prerogatives of their own nobility. For them, to be united with husbands whom they sincerely loved and esteemed, was a privilege higher than rank and pedigree, especially since their prospects in life seemed to promise well. Gustav Behring, a young member of the bench, was considered a jurist of high attainments. Max Hegewaldt's "engagement card," it is true, did not show

any higher title than that of "architect;" but it was known that he had already highly distinguished himself in his profession.

Mechthild, the third daughter of the house, a lovely being of sixteen, had in the animated discourse in which all the members of the family were engaged, taken sides with her father who, while enjoying his customary afternoon cigar, seriously exhorted his future sons-in-law to follow Mechthild's example, and even tried to bring his eldest daughters over to his opinion by slily recommending their zeal in supplying him with a light and an ash-stand. This bribe failing, he "puffed away," issuing a thrice repeated "No," under clouds of smoke which portended evil to the new "engagement-dresses."

But Mechthild insisted that Pa was perfectly right. Her argument in his behalf was evidently meant to convince her sisters of the fact that she had indeed passed the years of childhood, and was fully entitled to a voice in the family councils. "No," said she, "you must not make this call on any consideration. Stop with your carriage wherever you want, either separately, or all four together if you prefer to be laughed at, all this will be of no consequence—but call on aunt you must not.[1] She does not know us, nor do we know her, for that matter! Did not "uncle," when he, the other night, met us at the concert, act as if he could not make out where he had seen us before?"

Here she was interrupted by the master of the house: "What is the use," said he, "of fastening without the slightest necessity an unpleasant duty on one's self? Why should you wish to go through all those annoying formalities—sending up your cards, and pacing the antichamber till, if you should really be received, a lackey in rich livery ushers you into the presence of the lady, with whom you would exchange a set of empty and unmeaning phrases."

"No, no!" contradicted Mrs. de Fernau.

"Besides the contemptuous smiles at our lack of nobility," simultaneously interposed the two sons-in-law.

But against this last supposition the rest of the company

1 It is an imperative duty in Germany, for young people to call on all friends and relatives immediately after the announcement of their mutual engagement.—*Translator.*

unanimously arose. "Even aunt Jadwiga," they protested, "would only be too glad to accept such matches for her daughters, if she had any." And, indeed, the positions of both young men and the names which they had already made in their professions, were such as even proud families would accept as full equivalents for a pedigree.

This concession on the part of Mr. de Fernau encouraged his wife Linda to speak in behalf of her former friend with still greater warmth. Mrs. de Fernau was still, in many respects, the same as she had been when writing that confidential letter to her friend Jadwiga, which we have read in the beginning of this narrative. He who should have addressed her as the older sister of her daughters, could not justly be accused of downright flattery. She placed her delicate white hand in that of her husband, and said: "I believe you are all mistaken. Jadwiga once and for many years was my friend. We knew and loved each other till the time came when you broke up your intercourse with her husband, your brother. From that time our paths divided; but I have never observed that she bore us any ill-will. It is true that, since our return to this city, we have become perfect strangers to one another; but I greatly desire that we should at least restore outward appearances. An excellent opportunity offers now. When you call on her, she may ask you some pointed questions, or make some cutting remarks; but you will not regard that, especially if you think how many tears she must have wept for the loss of her happiness. You will then feel the more thankful for your own."

Mrs. de Fernau's opinion finally prevailed over all objections, and the next day we find the two young men with their fair brides on their round of ceremonial visits, the call on aunt Jadwiga being set down among the first. The Baroness Jadwiga, in the forenoon of that day, was superintending the private instruction of her two sons, Edward and Bruno, both preparing for the university. Their entire education had been by private tutors. At this time Dr. Hellwig, a young philologist, had the charge of the young men, and was to accompany them as "governor" to the university. Having never been enrolled in a regular "gymna-

sium," it was required that, previous to their admission to the university, they should undergo an examination before a board appointed for the purpose. Examinations of this kind are generally conducted with great rigor, and the examiners are not in the habit of making any allowance in favor of "despisers and dodgers of the regular course." It was strange, indeed, that Jadwiga, who in her former years felt a perfect shudder at anything looking like thoroughness and depth, should have for many years assisted in the exercises of her sons, taking part in the teacher's explanations, reprimanding the boys for improper answers, and actually knowing far more about the subject of the lessons than those who had to recite them. Dr. Hellwig, the present tutor, was a son of lawyer Hellwig of Buchenried, the same whom Jadwiga had consulted in our opening scene, and who had carefully guarded her secret for twenty years. Such, indeed, had been his discretion, that neither the Count of Wildenschwert nor the Court at Dornweil had ever heard a syllable of her remarkable visit to the lawyer's office.

Not a little was Baroness Jadwiga amazed when she saw two carriages turning into the avenue to her villa, and at the same time recognized as their occupants her two nieces, the children of her friend Linda. Immediately she rang the bell for her husband, who was occupied in his study; for she disliked to do anything of importance without his advice. When the servants appeared, she bade them ask their master, whether or not the young people were to be received? She was answered that the Baron left everything to her own decision. Accordingly the visitors were admitted, and shown into the reception-room, which was fitted up in the most gorgeous style. The carpets were of the most exquisite softness. The light which entered at bay windows and a cupola, was tempered by the foliage of creeping plants growing in invisible pots. Statues of marble and alabaster adorned the niches in the walls, where crimson was the prevailing color. A grand piano stood open in the midst of a rotunda. There was a rich variety of chairs, consoles with tasteful carvings, vases and mirrors. Upon entering the room, Jadwiga took hold of her two nieces' hands, and drew both of them affectionately to the sofa.

The Baroness de Fernau still retained many traces of her former beauty. There was an unmistakable expression of suffering in her face. But it was less this trace of sorrow that made her appear as old as she really was, than a certain sharpness and rigidity in her features, a natural development of the plastic profile of her younger days. Yet there was nothing of this in excess, nothing that indicated the violent commotions which had agitated her soul, no expression of uneasiness, shyness or remorse. Her bearing, her eyes, her address, rather bespoke something like martyrdom.

"So you have remembered us at last," she said. "How is your mother? And how is your sweet sister Mechthild? I saw the child the other day in the art exhibition, and she made such an impression on me that I would have ordered her picture if I had seen a painter." Her questions being answered, she turned to the young men, and wanted to hear something of their positions, their prospects in life, and of the peculiar incident by which the engagement of both sisters had happened on the same day. There was a great deal to say about these subjects, and, amidst laughing and blushing, they had not quite finished their reports, when the Baron de Fernau entered the room. He came in an elegant house-dress, his neckcloth loosely tied, his gaiters of enamelled leather—a perfect image of the never-dying *jeune homme*. Whoever would examine attentively those netlike lines below his eyes, which passed over into cheeks expanded by epicurean diet, or who would observe a certain sluggishness of his lower limbs concealed by an affected and artificial ease of locomotion, could not help acknowledging the sad fact, that time is a fell destroyer. At first sight, however, the Baron appeared to be no more than forty. His hair was still curled as in his youth, and not very much sprinkled with grey. A brush with light-brown had corrected the whiteness of his mustache.

The uncle was kind in the extreme, and spoke as if his intercourse with his brother had never been disturbed. This encouraged his wife to show herself still more affectionate to her nieces, going further, perhaps, than either she or her husband originally intended. She even spoke as if a close

intimacy between the two families, and their complete reconciliation were sure to follow; she mentioned her return-call which was to happen soon, and expressed the desire to see the whole family at her country seat at Wolmerode. When the young people, upon returning home, made a glowing report of their cordial reception, to the great satisfaction of Mrs. de Fernau, and especially mentioned the expected invitation by their aunt to the country seat at Wolmerode, Mechthild emphatically declared, that she would not be one of the party.

CHAPTER XIII.

WHILE these things were going on between the two branches of the de Fernau family, five years had elapsed since the death of Hennenhöft, and the mysterious discovery of a human being, held in captivity by him under the ruins of the old convent in the forest. The event had caused an outburst of intense indignation, not only in the neighborhood but throughout all Germany. Some monsters, under the guise of men, had despoiled an innocent child of the enjoyment of life, light, freedom, and of the possibility of human development. This being had, perhaps, without the knowledge of his culpable parents, been consigned to a dark, unwholesome, subterranean cavern, where he must have had a horrible death by hunger, if the key to his prison had been lost by the death of his keeper. The awful mystery, which seemed to have been revealed, and the last dire consequences of which seemed to have been averted by a direct interposition of Providence, had an almost stunning effect on the feelings of the people. Expressions of sympathy came from all directions, declaring the foundling of the forest to be the child of the epoch, and the ward of the nation. The name Theodore Waldner had been bestowed on him, which means "Child of the Woods, given by God." Pamphlets appeared, discussing his origin, reporting on the progress of his educators, and examining into the best plans of regaining the ten or fifteen years stolen from the most important period of his life; for they agreed that he must have been free in the beginning of his life, during some short

time. People made pilgrimages to his abode to get a glimpse of his features and to open communications with him.

The terrible tragedy also engaged the attention of the authorities, since the criminal code makes illegal imprisonment a grave offence. The murderer of the soul of that unfortunate child had already met his judge. But earthly justice is not satisfied with the judgment of heaven. The discoverer of the boy, praised at first, and extolled throughout the country, became suspected of being accessory to the crime. It was made to seem probable, during the preliminary investigations, that Wülfing's hasty appropriation of the keys, his immediate exploration of the deserted building, and his finding of Theodore Waldner had not been altogether accidental, but that he had been driven to these steps by his knowledge of the facts. He, accordingly, was taken into custody, and even his wife was compelled to share for some months his confinement in the prison. Even the career of his unfortunate sons, on account of their parents' infamy, was interrupted for a time.

Meanwhile Lienhard Nesselborn endeavored to make good the promises he had solemnly pledged to his father. He had taken the foundling to his house, which became now the shrine of pilgrimage for all those who hastened from near and far to see the wonder of the time. He soon became famous, and the eloquence of both his lips and his pen charmed his audiences as well as his readers. Money was freely contributed to assist him in his great educational undertaking.

The subject of his education was now, not the ideal, philosophical man of Rousseau, but a real, living soul. Pestalozzi, too, the noble founder of modern education, had always sought for this real, actual man. Those who were brutalized by the lack of education did not come directly out of the hand of Nature; those he had to take as they were, stained with the vices of the world, and marred and defaced by its mire. How would the noble Swiss have triumphed—to use the words of some pamphlets published at that time—could he have found that pure, undefiled soul, which his humanity tried to discover among those wretched forms of miserable children whom the terrible struggle of

the Cantons against the French towards the end of the last century, had made orphans; that soul which was now handed over to Lienhard Nesselborn, in an undeveloped body, which physicians had declared to be pure, undefiled, and sound. Education would celebrate its most sacred holiday! Soul and body untainted, but mind, judgment, imagination to be formed and guided; reflection and reasoning power to be called forth! No nurse with her songs had filled the infant's heart with the beguiling charm of euphony, or with the images of good and evil, black and white, attraction and repulsion. No finger had, during a thunderstorm, been raised towards heaven, calling the thunder "the language of an angry Deity." That soul was still a blank, on which no errors had been engrafted as a tenet of faith, no spurious reading inserted as God's own text!

Theodore Waldner, to judge from the size and form of his body, was a youth of sixteen or seventeen years, but a mere infant in mind and heart. Aside from sleeping, drinking and eating, he knew nothing but his toys and his keeper, whom, strange to say, he painfully missed. Bread, strongly spiced, was the only thing that he would take for weeks. Any food more nourishing would cause him intense suffering, convulsions, and sickness for whole days. Meat of all things was the most repulsive. He first became accustomed to vegetable diet and fruit. Even milk would not agree with him; and much less those spirituous liquors which have grown into a habit with so many! His entrance into God's sunny world had been one unmitigated pain. With tears he was longing for his dark abode. With the few German words coming from his lips, he cried longingly: "Man!" by which he meant not only the villain that had robbed him of liberty, but most things associated with the appearance of that man, as clothing, shoes, bread. Light for him was an arrow pointed at his eyes. The most beautiful creation of earth, the flowers, made him faint. Only the stars gave him pleasure. At these he grasped, like an infant at glistening jewelry. The brightness of the heavenly lights did not dazzle him, the effect of their rays being softened by night.

KINDERGARTEN CULTURE.

PROF. ADOLP PICK, a scholar of German birth, but who had resided for many years in Venice, devoted himself to the study of Fröbel's method of education, with the purpose of contributing to the ennobling and improving of Italy and her people, through its introduction into the country of his adoption. Although the popular system of the celebrated Thürmgian Teacher had not escaped the notice of Italian men of letters, and although the ministry of education had, in 1865, directed some attention to it, no steps had as yet been taken towards its realization upon the Peninsula.

In the autumn of 1868, Prof. Pick delivered a scientific discourse before an Assembly of Teachers, at the Athenæum in Venice, "on the Kindergarten Culture of Fröbel, or the Physical, Moral and Intellectual Development of Children, from two to seven years of age." This discourse was warmly received, and a committee of investigation appointed, consisting of some of the most eminent men of letters in Venice, who, after making themselves acquainted with the system, signified their unqualified approval of the same, and advocated its introduction into Italy, as highly desirable.

The authorities, however, took no action in the matter, but Prof. Pick, in company with Prof. Fickert of Dalmatia, established a journal—"L'educazione Moderna," devoted exclusively to the exposition of Fröbel's method. Still this undertaking could not alone overcome the old established routine of education.

It was with great trouble and sacrifice that the journal was established, supported and circulated, for scarcely could there be found in any cultivated state of Europe or America —Spain, perhaps, excepted—so great an indifference on the part of the people themselves, to educational matters, as in Italy.

At last, on the 3d of November, 1868, Prof. Pick, in company with Miss Elizabeth Solomon (a pupil of Mad. Marenholz Bulow, in Berlin), established the first Kindergarten in Italy. Frau Adele della Vida, and other prominent persons in Venice, soon became interested in the undertaking, and helped to sustain it.

Afterwards, Prof. Pick gave public lectures upon the subject in Treviso, Milan, Turin and Florence.

In consequence of these efforts, Kindergarten schools, after the German method, were established in Verona, Turin and Milan, and are in course of preparation in other Italian cities.

The author of this report visited the Kindergarten in Venice, last summer, and was fully satisfied of its success. In order that the system may be more generally established in Italy, native teachers must be trained for the purpose, as has been done in Germany, England, France, Switzerland, Belgium and other states.

The Italian Minister of Education, Commendatore Correnti, is much attached to the cause, and in a late letter to Prof. Pick says: "Either I am greatly mistaken, or the religion of labor as promulgated by so interesting and agreeable a system of education, will form the groundwork of a new moral life, for the individual, as well as for society."

To the above report, translated from a German paper, the undersigned will add, that school matters promise to progress more satisfactorily at present in Austria and Italy, where they are entirely removed from all clerical influence and control, than in enlightened Germany, where only one branch—the *Real Schule*, has been placed under the control of the Department of the Interior.

I shall shortly send you a report of the Kindergarten Congress, recently held in Dresden.

Leipzig. EDW. WIEBE.

BATHING IN THE DEAD SEA.

BATHING in the Dead Sea produces as novel a sensation as if you found yourself suddenly endowed with wings, and emulating the feats of a tumbler-pigeon in mid-air. You become a clumsy float, a top-heavy buoy, or swollen cork, the instant you are in its waters; and arms, legs, and body are apparently endowed with the strangest qualities. It is as if heavy weights were affixed to each, directly you attempt to move, and experienced swimmers fail

in their best strokes, by reason of the unnatural buoyancy with which they have to contend. Your limbs are on the surface, and you cleave the air with your hands, the moment you try to swim; and the man who would be drowned as soon as he was out of his depth in any other sheet of water in the world, is the one best fitted for bathing in the Dead Sea. He cannot sink in it, let him do what he will. It is as if he were encased in life-belts, or sprawling on a feather-bed. If he lean back and throw his feet up, it is exactly as if he were resting in a peculiarly well-stuffed easy-chair, with a leg-rest to match. He may fold his arms, turn on one side, lie flat upon his stomach or back, clasp his knees with both of his hands, or draw his toes and head together, in the same shape the human body would assume if crammed hastily into a jar with its extremities left out, and all with no more possibility of sinking than if he was in so much soft sand. Woe to him if he be tempted by these unusual facilities to stay long in the water with his head uncovered! The bare and rocky walls of the low-lying caldron which holds the Sea of Death, reflect back the burning sun and concentrate its rays; and a *coup de soleil* will be the all but inevitable consequence of his imprudence. Two of our party entered the water, and remained in it some seconds before they re-covered their heads, and the result was severe shooting-pains, sickness, and dizziness, which lasted until their immersion, an hour later, in the refreshing waters of the Jordan. Woe, too, to the inexperienced stranger, who, following his rule in other bathing, dips his head as well as his body into the Dead Sea. Inflamed eyes and nostrils, together with hair and beard laden with acrid salts, are among the penalties of his rashness; while if he tastes of its waters, he becomes acquainted with a greater concentration of nastiness than had entered his imagination before. In buoyancy and bitterness the Sea of Sodom exceeded all we had heard or read respecting it; but in some other particulars our anticipations were falsified surprisingly. We looked for gloom, and we found brightness; we had imagined turbid waters, and we found a lake exquisitely clear and delicately blue; we expected perfect silence and an unbroken waste, and we found the birds singing sweetly among the tamarisks and oleanders, which spring up wherever a stream finds its way from the mountains to mingle with the mysterious inland sea.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS to be held in St. Louis, August 22d, 23d, and 24th, promise to be of unusual interest. The programme of the principal exercises was published in this MONTHLY for July.

THE N. Y. STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION held at Lockport, July 25th to 27th, we expect to report upon in our next.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION will, we presume, meet sometime during the summer, and probably somewhere in New England, as usual. As yet we are unable to gain any information on the subject.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.—The Report of the Superintendent of schools, Mr. Edward Smith, for the year ending March 7, 1871, gives the following statistics: Number of buildings where schools are kept, 17; number of schools, 38; number of persons between the ages of five and twenty-one, 16,859; whole number of pupils registered, 8,042; average number belonging, 5,701; average daily attendance, 5,365, or 94 per cent. of the number belonging; number of sittings in all the schools, 6,785; number of pupils reported in private and parochial schools, 1,557; total amount of expenses, exclusive of buildings, $108,402.33, of which $73,765.90 were paid for salaries; cost of tuition per pupil on average number belonging, $12.94; number of teachers, 173, of whom 162 were ladies. In the Central Library, there are 10,502 volumes.

UTICA, N. Y.—Supt. A. McMillan, in his report for 1870, gives the following statistics: Number of children between the ages of five and twenty-one, 9,392; number of schools, 28; number of sittings, 3,352; number of pupils enrolled, 4,331; average number belonging, 2,712; average daily attendance, 2,547; number of teachers, 71; average number of pupils to a teacher, 61; whole amount paid for teachers' wages, $31,599; average salary paid male teachers, $1,037, female teachers, $385; value of school property, $249,616; number of school buildings, 16. We deem the following remarks worthy of being quoted: "The lot s ae

of ample size, well graded, or, if the location requires, wel planked, and in every respect suitably fitted and arranged for the comfort and recreation of pupils. They are also ornamented with trees, which, so far from being mutilated or destroyed, as might by some be apprehended, are guarded by the children with especial care and pride. The wisdom of that liberal policy, which in earlier years provided the schools with commodious play grounds, becomes strikingly apparent as the city is more thickly populated, and the value of real estate is so largely increased as to render its present purchase at least impracticable, if within the limit of possibility." Who can tell how much the beautiful surroundings of the schools have to do with their present prosperous condition?

SPRINGFIELD, MASS.—The entire cost of the schools for the year 1870, was $73,636.97, of which $59,264.22 were for teachers' salaries. The number of pupils in the schools some part of the year, was 4,679; average number belonging, 3,822; average attendance, 3,407; cost of instruction per scholar based upon average number belonging, $15.36, based upon average attendance, $17.23; number of teachers employed, 103. The report of the Superintendent, Mr. E. A. Hubbard, shows that the schools are in good condition, and in charge of faithful and competent teachers.

WASHINGTON, D. C.—Owing to unpleasant disagreements between the late Superintendent of Public Schools, Mr. Z. Richards and the Board of Trustees, the Annual Report for 1869–70 was not published at the proper time. Nor is it probable that the Superintendent would have had an opportunity of making known the results of his labors, had it not been for the friendly course pursued by the Board of Aldermen, who ordered that one thousand copies of the report be printed; action which should have been taken by the Trustees. The report is, as might be expected under these circumstances, rather a defense of the official conduct of the late Superintendent, than a statement of the condition and wants of the public schools. It contains, however, much valuable information and some interesting statistics from which we quote: Population of the city in 1870,

109,338; number of children between 5 and 20, 35,671; number of persons actually under instruction, 20,470; total number of schools (not school buildings), 117; number of teachers, 127; whole number of pupils enrolled, 10,753, of whom 3,500 were males; average number on roll, 5,888; average daily attendance, 5,418; amount paid for salaries, $97,650; total expenses for the year, $173,250; estimated value of school property, $460,000.

ADRIAN, MICH.—The Report of the Superintendent, W. H. Payne, gives the following statistics for the year 1870: Population of city, 9,000; number of children in city, 2,600; whole enrollment in schools, 1,603; average daily attendance, 1,105; number of school buildings, five: illustrations of which are given in the report; number of teachers, 30; value of school property, $150,000; total disbursements, $57,156, of which $14,163 were for teachers' wages, and $25,491 for floating debt. In thirteen years 67 pupils have graduated from the High School.

NEW MEXICO.—The Committee appointed by the Presbytery of Santa Fe at its late meeting, has issued an address to the members of the Presbyterian Church in the States in behalf of "Santa Fe University, Industrial and Agricultural College," of which Rev. D. F. McFarland is President. This Appeal says: "it is said that there are in New Mexico 14,349 wild Indians, none of whom can read and write, and that there are nineteen villages of Pueblo Indians containing a population of 7,648 persons, of whom only 57 can read and write, and a citizen population, according to the last census, of 51,852, of whom only 14,696 can read and write; showing that there are in New Mexico 99,094 uneducated persons, including Indians. The total inhabitants of the Territory of New Mexico, including Indians, number 113,792, out of whom there are only 14,753 persons who can read and write, and nearly one-half of this number are probably persons born in the States."

CALIFORNIA.—STATE NORMAL SCHOOL. The ordeal of a change in the location of the State Normal School will be passed successfully, if we may judge from the visible indications. Already a considerable number of pupils have made

arrangements for the next term. The popular interest in the school was never greater, nor the good will of the people more decided. The new building advances rapidly, and will be ready for occupancy at the time fixed. The work is being done *faithfully*, and when finished, the edifice will be an honor to the State.

NEBRASKA.—The sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections of land in each township, donated by the United States for school purposes, promise to yield a large school fund. The amount of land in these sections in the settled portion of the State, lying east of the First Guide Meridian, which is 200 miles east of the west line of the State, is about 832,000 acres. The State constitution fixes the minimum price of these lands at $5 an acre, which the Legislature has increased to $7, and good judges think that the land may be sold to realize an average of $10 an acre. The proceeds constitute an irreducible fund, the interest of which is to be used for school purposes. In addition to this great donation, the State has received 90,000 acres for an Agricultural College, 46,080 acres for a State University, and 40,080 acres of salt-spring lands, a portion of which the State has wisely set apart for the support of a State Normal School, already established at Peru. The State also receives five per cent. of the proceeds of all lands sold within its limits, both before and since its admission into the Union, to be paid in money. If these munificent grants are honestly and wisely managed and used, they will prove sources of great prosperity and progress.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

RAWLINSON'S MANUAL[1] is a worthy companion to the Student's Series of Histories. The teacher will prize it for its compactness and comprehensiveness, as also for its inclusion of the very latest results of criticism and investigation; but even more, perhaps, for its abundant references to other

1 A Manual of Ancient History, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of the Western Empire. By George Rawlinson, M. A. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1871.

works in which the topics, here briefly treated or but hinted at, are handled at large. It is, at the same time, a handbook, and a clew to the works of the most competent authors in each special department of the subject. In this last point even the advanced student will find it exceedingly useful. The close connection that should subsist between geography and history is kept in view throughout the work, though, properly enough, we are expected to look elsewhere for our maps. The Manual is modeled for the most part on the excellent "Handbuch" of Heeren, a work now in many respects left behind by the progress of historical knowledge during the last forty-five years. Those who know the labor and research exhibited by the author in his "Herodotus" and "Five Great Monarchies," will need no other commendation of this his latest work.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS, in spite of the dullness which is expected to prevail at this season of the year, do not permit their presses to rest. They have just issued "Livy's History of Rome," in two volumes, literally translated by Dr. Spillan. These volumes are similar to Bohn's Classical Series. To their series of "Greek and Latin Texts" they have added "Sophocles." The type will be appreciated by the student, while the size of the volume will admit of its being carried in the pocket—"Olive," a novel, by the author of "John Halifax, Gentleman," is neatly bound in cloth, 428 pages. To their "Library of Select Novels," in paper covers, they add "Her Lord and Master," by Florence Marryat.

CLARK & MAYNARD have just published "The Historical Reader." It embraces selections from standard writers of ancient and modern history, interspersed with illustrative passages from British and American poets, with explanatory observations, notes, etc. The book contains a vocabulary of difficult words, and biographical and geographical indexes. The work is by John J. Anderson, already well known as the author of several popular School Histories. 544 pages, price $1.80.

HOLT & WILLIAMS have published an elaborate "Hand-Book of Anglo-Saxon and Early English," by Hiram Corson.

572 pages, price $3.00. Also a second edition, carefully revised of "Le Cid," a tragedy by P. Corneille, edited, with a commentary for the use of students, by Edward S. Joynes. 110 pages, price 50 cents.

THE AMERICAN TRACT SOCIETY have issued two neat illustrated volumes for the young, entitled, "Six Boys," A Mother's Story, and "Bible Sketches and their Teachings."

SAMUEL R. WELLS publishes "Thoughts for the Young Men of America," or practical words of advice to those born in poverty, by L. U. Reavis.

MISCELLANEA.

GUSTAVUS FISCHER, who has done eminent service to the cause of sound education, by exposing the charlatanism of some of our school book makers, has had the degree of LL. D. conferred upon him by one of our best American Colleges.

HON. B. G. NORTHROP, Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Education, has been commissioned to go to Europe to examine into the systems of education there.

AN attempt, begun at the Charter-house Shcool, in London, on Founder's Day celebration, to adopt, in England, the Continental pronunciation of Latin, has been favorably received, so far. The soft *c* is sounded as hard *k*, and *a* is intoned something like *au*. In Ireland, Latin is generally pronounced in a medium manner, between the English and the Continental fashion. Thus, *amare*, which would be something like *a-mary* in Oxford, is *a-makre* in Dublin University.

THE London School Board has at last talked itself up to practical work. It has resolved to undertake forthwith the providing of a limited number of schools in various localities where the deficiency is already ascertained to be great, and where there is no doubt that large provisions for public elementary education must hereafter be made by the Board. This is to be done without waiting for the completion of the inquiries into the efficiency of the existing schools, and into the social and religious condition of the whole of the municipality.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY, England, has an army of students. The attendance during the last term is stated to have numbered over seven thousand—the largest number at the university for ten or twelve years. The usual attendance is something less than five thousand,

with an average of about three hundred students at each of the nineteen colleges that compose the university.

THE trustees of the California Congregational Seminary, have purchased the Pacific Female College for $80,000. It consists of the college building, a large, well-built and rather imposing structure, located on a fine knoll, with twenty-six acres of land, about a mile and a half from the center of the city of Oakland. Seventeen acres have been already sold by the trustees for $60,200.

JEAN PAUL RICHTER says: "To insure modesty I would advise the educating of the sexes together; for two boys will preserve twelve girls, or two girls twelve boys, innocent, amid winks, jokes and improprieties, merely by that instinctive sense which is the forerunner of matured modesty. But I will guarantee nothing in a school where girls are alone together, and still less where boys are."

A TEACHER, in trying to explain passive verbs to a class, said to one of the boys, "Now observe: If I say 'John is beaten,' what is John's relation to the verb?" "John gets licked," answered the boy. "No, you blockhead; what does John do?" "I dunno, unless he hollers."

"YOU are very stupid, Thomas," said a country teacher to a little boy eight years old. "You are a little donkey; and what do they do to cure them of stupidity?" "They feed them better, and kick them less," said the arch little urchin.

A BOSTON teacher asked a new boy who made the glorious universe, but the boy couldn't tell; so the teacher got a rawhide, and told the boy if he didn't tell he would whip him. The boy looked at the whip, and sniveled out: "Please, Sir, I did but I won't do it again?" The teacher fainted.

"WHAT is the size of this place?" gravely asked a New Yorker of the conductor, just after the brakeman had sung out "O-pe-li-ka" at a Southern station, where not a house was visible among the pines except a rambling shed called an "eating-saloon." "It's about as big as New York," was the ready answer, "but it isn't built up yet."

A SCHOOL-BOY going out of the play-ground without leave, one of his masters called after him, and inquired where he was going. "I am going to buy a ha'porth of nails." "What do you want a ha'porth of nails for?" "For a half-penny," replied the youngster.

SOMEBODY who has been studying Webster's new "unabridged" dictionary expresses a regret that the lexicographer's definition of the word "boil" had not met the eyes of the new-version people before they translated the Book of Job, as it would have been so beautiful to say, instead of boils, "And Satan smote Job with circumscribed subcutaneous inflammations, characterized by pointed pustular tumors, and suppurating with central cores."

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

Battle of the Book.—We are glad to learn that an amicable settlement has been reached in the matter of Swinton's *School History of the United States*—a settlement creditable to all parties concerned—and that the house of Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. will immediately bring out the work. This case forms one of the curiosities of literature: for while there are endless instances of books trying to find a publisher, this is a case of the two leading educational houses of the country contending for a book.

One of the results of the litigation, now happily terminated, is, that Mr. Swinton brings out two books in place of one. Pending the suit over his original manual, the author undertook and completed a text book specifically designed to meet the wants of our common schools, graded and ungraded. This work bears the title of *Swinton's Condensed School History of the United States*. The other is entitled *Swinton's Comprehensive United States*.

The *Condensed United States* will be issued by Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. in a few days. Advance sheets have for some time been in the hands of leading educational men of this city, and we but express their unanimous opinion when we say that this manual marks an era in school histories. Mr. Swinton's talent as a writer of history is pretty well known to the readers of this journal, with which he was many years associated, while through his *Army of the Potomac* and *Decisive Battles* it is equally well known to the country at large. The *Condensed* contains many technical points of novelty and superiority, which teachers will readily appreciate. It is clear in its style, sensible in its tone, and impartial and catholic in its spirit. It will be extensively used in this city, and has been adopted by the State Educational Boards of several States. The palpable merits of the book will be its own sufficient introduction.—*N. Y. Times*, June 17, 1871.

Teachers that propose to teach Physiology should not fail to examine HUTCHISON'S PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE, written by one of the most eminent men of the medical profession. Send to **Clark & Maynard**, New York, for a Circular in regard to it. They send a sample copy of the book to teachers for 80 cts., which is half price.

The great sale of ANDERSON'S HISTORIES, published by **Clark & Maynard**, New York, shows that books of real merit are appreciated.

These histories are used in the public schools of forty-five of the sixty-six cities which, according to the last census, contain more than 20,000 inhabitants each. The total population of these sixty-six cities amounts to 6,101,453. The total population of the forty-five cities using Anderson's Histories is 5,070,904. They are also used in hundreds of smaller cities and towns, as well as in numerous colleges, academies and seminaries, in all parts of the country.

We advise teachers to examine ANDERSON'S HISTORICAL READER recently published. It will be found exactly what is wanted for a reader for their higher classes.

The Spencerian Copy-Books.—We are glad to learn that the SPENCERIAN COPY-BOOKS, the most beautiful and practical series of writing books published, has been adopted for exclusive use in the public schools of Virginia.

A Double Elastic Joy Forever.—There is nothing more desirable to all who write than a good pen, and there are as many preferences as there are kinds of pens. After using in our editorial and business rooms the Spencerian Pens, we can confidently say, that we have never tried anything so excellent in their way. They possess the quill action and are elastic and durable to a remarkable degree. Made of the best steel, and under the supervision of the original inventor of steel pens, by the most skilled workman in Europe, they certainly deserve the great success they have attained. Of these pens one excellent feature alone should, we think, recommend them, if they possessed none other; and that is the smoothness and evenness of their points. This great merit, so difficult to obtain, the Spencerian supplies perfectly, and we are confident that those who give them a trial will not soon give them up.

They comprise fifteen numbers, all differing in flexibility and fineness of point, so that the most fastidious penman cannot fail to be satisfied in a selection; and to accommodate those who would like to choose from all the varieties Messrs. IVISON, BLAKEMAN, TAYLOR & CO., **138** and **140** GRAND STREET, NEW YORK, have very ingeniously arranged samples of the different numbers on a handsome card, which they will send by mail, securely enclosed, for twenty-five cents.—The *Independent*, June 8th, 1871.

This Number.—Every person who receives or reads this number of the AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is entitled to a specimen number of the *Illustrated Phrenological Journal* FREE. You only need to state this and send address with stamp for postage. It is a *First Class Family Magazine*, devoted largely to the interest of education and of especial interest to every TEACHER and PARENT, as it serves as a guide by pointing out all the peculiarities of character and disposition, and rendering government and classification not only possible but easy. Every *live* teacher should read it, and we would advise all to avail themselves of this chance to examine it. Published at $3 a year, it will be sent "ON TRIAL" to *new* subscribers six months for $1; or *The Journal* and THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY to *new* subscribers for $3.50—a very *liberal* offer. Address S. R. WELLS, Publisher, 389 Broadway, New York.

Good Selections; in Prose and Poetry, for School and Home reading, is just out, and is having a very flattering reception by the press. Mr. Jelliffe, the compiler, has practically answered the question, "What shall we read?" in this handy little volume of one hundred and sixty-six pages. The book presents, in a cheap and convenient form, "Good Selections" of a character heretofore obtained only by long and weary research among many large and expensive volumes. It is well adapted to every-day use in schools, as well as to public exercises, home entertainments, Lyceums and Literary Societies. It is bound in paper covers. Specimen copies will be mailed for thirty cents. It is published by J. W. SCHERMERHORN & Co., 14 Bond St., New York.

Remarks about Obtaining Teachers.

IT is evident that an "Educational Agency," conducted by persons of suitable education, and aided by the accumulated records and acquaintances of many years, must have decided advantages over all other methods of assisting those who seek well-qualified teachers. The success of such an Institution must depend upon its securing *the right teacher*, hence there can be no temptation to partiality or careless representation.

"Advertising" has always been uncertain and unsatisfactory, because of the miscellaneous mass of applications called out from unknown persons, and the consequent difficulty in determining which are worthy of consideration; nor has the custom of "appealing to friends" been much more fruitful of good results, as such a course must always incur the risk of friendly *partiality*, recommendations being too often given to help the teacher to a "place" rather than to benefit the school.

The inefficiency of the old methods, and the embarrassments and loss of time connected with them, induced the establishment of the AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE in 1855. Its value becoming more and more obvious after its establishment, it was in 1858 thoroughly reorganized upon a sound and permanent basis. Its history and its success now constitute its just claim upon the confidence of the teaching community. Its aid is available to all who have occasion to select and engage teachers. Those acquainted with its operations regard it A RELIABLE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, yielding the fullest advantages of a "division of labor":—first, by carefully compiling and classifying information about teachers and schools; secondly, by reducing perplexing details to orderly and available system; thirdly, by examining into the qualifications and experience of candidates for positions; and fourthly, by "sifting the chaff from the wheat"—introducing candidates of known calibre and character.

During the past few years this Agency has been called upon by every grade of institution from the district school to the university. It has supplied many of the best schools, both public and private, with principals and assistants in English branches, mathematics, natural sciences, ancient and modern languages, music (vocal and instrumental), drawing and painting, gymnastics, military tactics, etc. Many families have secured competent tutors and governesses.

In short, the AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE is prepared to meet these varied demands promptly and successfully, and is ready on fair notice to introduce teachers of all reasonable acquirements. Its economy of time and effort, its general reliability, promptness, and past success have secured for it the confidence of School Officers generally. While it is not infallible, and does not pretend to "insure human nature," yet *when proper instructions are given*, it seldom fails to direct the "right teacher to the right place."

CAUTION.—The success of the AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE has called out incompetent and unprincipled *imitators*, for whose operations this Agency cannot be responsible after this warning.

PLEASE READ "TESTIMONY" HEREWITH.

Principals, School Officers, and Heads of Families, who seek Teachers, should fill "Form of Order," and send it to N. Y. Office of "Amer. School Inst."

"American School Institute," founded 1855,

IS A RELIABLE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU:

1. To aid all who seek well-qualified Teachers;
2. To represent Teachers who desire positions;
3. To give Parents information of Schools;
4. To sell, rent, and exchange School Properties.

J. W SCHERMERHORN, A.M., Actuary, 14 Bond Street (near Broadway), New York.

M. J. YOUNG, Secretary. W. S. STEVENSON, A. M., Secretary.

NEW ENGLAND BRANCH, 117 Washington St., Boston—G. S. WOODMAN, A. M, Manager.

WESTERN BRANCH, 182 S. Clark St., Chicago, Ill.—EDWARD SPEAKMAN, Secretary.

"The Right Teacher for the Right Place."

INFORMATION OF TEACHERS is given, embracing—Opportunities for education; special qualifications: experience, and in what schools; references; age; religious preferences; salary expected; candidate's letter, and sometimes a photographic likeness. We nominate *several* candidates, giving opportunity for selection.

Fifteen years trial proves the *American School Institute* useful and efficient. Its patrons and friends are among the first educational and business men.

TERMS: *Two Dollars on giving order for Teacher.* When Teacher is accepted, *Three Dollars additional.* Extra expense incurred in selecting and examining a rare Teacher, will be charged. *No charge to Public Schools.*

☞ Principals, School Officers, and others, should give early notice of what Teachers they may want.

Form of Order for Teacher.

(1) Full name and full post-office address of the person who wants the Teacher.....

(2) Do you want a Male or Female Teacher?..... Married or Unmarried?....

(3) What branches must be taught?.....

(4) When must the Teacher begin?.....

(5) What salary will you pay? Will you furnish Board? Do you pay traveling expenses?

(6) Do you prefer the Teacher to be a Church member? Of what Church?.....

(7) Remarks.....

Too full particulars cannot be given.)

Those applying first time should name References (in New York, if possible.)

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☞ Principals, School Officers, and others, should give early notice of what Teachers they may want.

TEACHERS' BULLETIN.

☞ Teachers who wish positions should have "Application Form." This Bulletin is sent to the leading Principals and School Officers everywhere, hence representation here is efficient.

Abbreviations Explained: Number of paragraph refers to Candidate's application on file; Name of School or College signifies that Candidate has graduated at Institution named. If "Ed." precedes name of School, Candidate has attended there, *not graduated.* Figure following denotes *number of years experience.* Branches taught are abbreviated naturally. Foreign languages *spoken* by Candidate are in *Italics.* Church membership is shown; B. for Baptist; Cl., Congregational; C., Roman Catholic; E., Episcopal; L., Lutheran; M., Methodist; P., Presbyterian. "Home," as "$800 and Home," means $800 *Cash Salary, and Board, Washing, Fuel and Lights.*

Ladies—English, French, Drawing, etc.

739—Temple Grove; 8: Eng., Maths., Latin, *French* and *German*; E.; $400 and Home.

740—Hagerstown Sem.; 3; Eng., Maths., and German; P.: $300 and Home.

741—Ed. Mt. de Chantal; Eng., *French*, and *German*; C.: $350 and Home.

742—Po'keepsie Fem. Coll. Inst.; 3; Eng., Maths., and Latin; R.

743—Whitestown Sem.; Eng., Maths., German, and Gymnastics; B.

744—Lansingburgh Sem.; 6; Eng., Maths., Book-keeping and Elocution; Cl.

745—Mt. Holyoke; 9; Eng., Maths., and Latin; Cl.: $500 and Home.

746—Ed. Bethlehem; 2; *German*, Latin, and Eng.; E.: $600 and Home.

747—20; Eng., Maths., Classics, *French*, *German*, and Drawing; B.

748—Elmira Coll.; 2; Eng., Maths., Latin, *French*, German, Drawing and Gymnastics; P.

749—Po'keepsie Acad.; Eng., Maths., Elocution and Drawing.

750—Vassar; 4; Eng., Maths., Latin, French and *German*; P.; $800 and Home.

751—Ripley Fem. Coll.; 3; Eng., Maths., Latin and French; E.

752—N. Granville; 1; Eng. and Maths.; Cl.

753—Ed. Cazenovia; 7; Eng., Maths., Drawing and Painting; P.

754—St. Lawrence Univ.; 3; Eng., Maths., Latin, German, Drawing and Painting: $500.

755—Ed. Boston; 10; Eng. and Maths: $700.

756—Ed. Joliet; 5; Eng., Maths. and Object Teaching; B.: $450.

757—Providence Friends Sch.; 3; Eng., Maths., Latin, Drawing and Painting; E.

758—Ed. N. E.; 6; Eng., Maths., French and German; E.

759—Salem Nor.; 2; Eng., Maths., Elocution, Latin and German: $400 and Home.

760—Me. Wes. Coll.; 2; Eng., Maths., Latin and Gymnastics; M.: $400 and Home.

761—Vassar; 2: Eng., Maths., Sciences, Latin, French, German and Drawing; P.: $600 and Home.

762—Hudson River Inst.; Eng., Maths., Latin, French and Drawing; Cl.

763—Albany Sem.; 20; Eng., Maths., Latin and Drawing; P.

764—Ed. Troy Sem.; 2; Eng., Maths., and El. French and Drawing; E.

765—Ipswich Acad. and Prof. Agassiz's Sch.; 5; Eng., French, Drawing and Painting; Cl.; $1000.

766—Ingham Univ.; 6; Eng., Maths., Botany, Latin, French, Drawing and Gymnastics; P.: $800.

767—Nor. Inst.; 10; Eng. and Maths.; P.: $300 and Home.

768—Troy Sem.; 2: Eng., French and German; E.: $500.

769—Cottage Sem.; 6; Eng., Maths., Drawing and Painting; P.

770—Ed. Mt. Holyoke; 6; Eng., Maths., Latin, French, Drawing, Gymnastics and Object Teaching; P.: $1100.

771—Grad. N. Y. Normal; 4; Eng. and Maths.; P.: $600.

772—Vassar; 3; Eng., Maths., Classics and El. Music; B.: $600.

773—Vassar; Eng., Maths. and French.

774—Cottage Hill Sem.; Eng. and Maths.

775—Elmira Coll.; 2; Eng., Maths., Elocution, Latin, French and Object Teaching.

776—N. Y. City Nor. Coll.; Eng. and Maths.; E.

777—Miss Hoyt's; Eng., Maths., Latin, French and *German*; E.

778—N. Granville Sem.; 6; Eng., Maths. and Latin; Cl.

779—Central Conf. Sem.; 1; Eng., Maths., *French*, *German* and Singing; B.: $600.

780—Nor. Sch.; 2; Eng., Maths. and Gymnastics: $200 and Home.

781—Ed. Philadelphia; 20; Eng. and Drawing; E.: $300 and Home.

782—Pub. Sch.; Eng. and Maths.; Cl.

783—Ed. Sem.; 8; Eng., Maths., Penmanship and Drawing; P.

784—Ed. Whitestown Sem.; 19; Eng., Maths., French, German and Drawing; P.: $300 and Home.

785—Granville Sem.; 4; Eng., Maths. and El. German; P.: $600.

786—N. Y. Normal; 1; Eng. and Maths.; E.: $500.

787—Mt. Holyoke; 6; Eng., Maths. and Latin; Cl.
788—Mt. Holyoke; 9; Eng., Maths., Latin, French and German; E.; $1000.
789—Westbrook Inst.; 1; Eng., El. Maths., El. Latin; $400.
490—Ed. Alfred Univ.; 4; Eng., Maths., Latin, French; B.; $400.
491—Troy Sem.; 2; Eng., Maths., El. French; P.
492—Genesee Sem.; 6; Eng., Maths., German; M.; $1,000.
493—Del. Wes. Coll.; 5; Eng., Maths.; $400 and home.
494—N. Y. Conf. Sem.; Eng., Maths., French, German, Drawing; M.; $800.
495—Concord H. Sch.; 3; Eng., Maths., Latin; Cl.; $600.
496—N. Y. Nor. Sch.; 6; Eng., Maths.; P.
497—Ed. H. Sch.; 5; Eng., Maths., El. German and Piano; P.
498—Ingham Univ.; Eng., Maths.; P.; $300 and home.

Ladies—Music, etc.

508—Mt. Holyoke; 15; Eng., Maths., *French*, Latin, Spanish, Piano and Singing; Cl.; $1000.
509—Portland H. Sch.; 2; Singing; Elocution, Eng., Maths., Latin; Cl.; $600 and Home.
510—Ed. England; 17; Piano, Singing, Eng., French, German, Italian; E.; $800.
511—Monticello Sem.; Piano, Singing, Eng., Maths., Latin, French; B.; $500.
512—Mt. Holyoke; 2; Piano, Eng., Maths., Latin, El. French, El. German; Cl.
513—Mechanicsville Acad.; 2; Piano, Singing, Cab. Organ, *French*, Eng.; M.; $300 and Home.
514—Ed. Pub. Sch.; 5; Piano, Singing, English, French, Drawing; Cl.; $600.
515—Ed. Ripley Coll.; 2; Piano, Singing, Eng., Maths., El. French, El. Latin; B.; $600.
516—Ed. Packer; 5; Piano, Organ, Singing; M.; $400.
517—Ft. Edward; 5; Piano, Singing, Eng., Maths., French; B.; $700.
518—Kent's Hill; Piano, Drawing, Painting, Eng., French, Latin.
519—Binghamton Acad.; 2; Singing, Piano, Eng., Maths.; P.; $500 and Home.
520—Ed. Canada; 4; Piano, Organ, French, Eng.; Cl.; $300 and Home.
521—Genesee Mus. Inst.; 3; Piano, Organ, Guitar, Singing.
522—Music Vale; 2; Piano, Eng., Maths., *French*; E.
523—Select Sch.; 5; Piano, Melodeon, Cab. Organ, Singing.
524—Wes. Sem., O.; 7; Piano, Singing, Eng., Maths., Latin, French, German; $600.
525—Hudson River Inst.; 5; Piano, Eng., Maths., Latin, French, Gymnastics; P.; $400 and Home.
526—Music Vale; 8; Piano, Singing, Thor. Base; Cl.; $300 and Home.
527—Concord H. Sch.; Piano, Eng., Maths., Latin, Drawing; Cl.; $500 and Home.
528—Pa. Nor. Sch.; 3; Piano, Organ, Singing, Eng., Maths., Object System, Gymnastics; P.; $600.
529—Ed. Boston; 8; Piano, Organ, Singing, French, Latin; Cl.; $300 and Home.
530—Ed. England; Piano, Eng., *French*, El. German, Drawing; E.; $400.
531—Ed. Berlin; 2; Singing, German; L.
532—Genesee Mus. Inst.; 2; Piano, Organ, Thor. Base, Singing; E.; $350 and Home.
533—Ed. Masters; 3; Piano, Organ, Singing; E.; $500 and Home.
533—Ed. Masters; 10; Piano, Organ, Singing; E.
534—Ed. St. Mary's Hall; 10; Piano, Eng., El. [illegible]tin, El. French; E.; $350 and Home.
35—Houghton Sem.; 3; Piano, Organ, Singing, [illegible], Maths., Latin, *French*, El. German, Gymnastics; [illegible] $500 and Home.
36—Ed. Abbott Acad.; Piano, Eng., Maths., El. [illegible], Drawing; Cl.; $400.
37—Lutherville Sem.; 2; Piano; L.; $400 and [illegible]
8—[illegible]; El. Piano, Singing, Draw[illegible]; P.
[illegible] Piano, Singing, *French*,

540—Ed. Conn.; 11; Piano, Eng., Maths., Latin, French, Drawing Painting, Object System, Gymnastics; B.; $700.
541—Ed. England; 3; Piano, French, Eng.; E.
542—Kent's Hill; Piano, French, German, Latin, Elocution, Drawing, Gymnastics; $300 and Home.
543—Ed. London; 6; Piano, Singing, French; B.; $600 and Home.
542—Carversville Inst.; 1; Piano, Singing, French; P.; $400 and Home.
543—Ed. Nova Scotia; 10; Piano, Eng., French, Drawing; E.
544—Ed. S.C.; 7; Piano, Eng., Maths., French; E.
545—Vt. Lit. Inst.; 5; Piano, Organ, Singing, Gymnastics; E.; $500 and Home.
546—Ed. New York; 12; Piano, Eng., Maths., Drawing; P.; $600.
547—De Ruyter Inst.; 8; Piano, Singing, Eng., Maths., German, Drawing, Painting, Gymnastics; B.
548—Ed. Paris; 8; Piano, Singing, Harmony, Thor. Base, *French*, Spanish; C.
549—Ripley Coll.; 1; Piano; Cl.; $300 and home.
550—Ed. Ft. Edward; 3; Piano, Singing, Eng., Maths., French; E.; $300 and home.
551—Fitchburg H. Sch.; 1; Piano, El. Singing, Eng., Maths., French; $300 and home.
552—Ed. Masters; 8; Piano, Singing; E.; $500 and home.
553—Packer; 3; Singing, Eng., Maths., Drawing, Gymnastics; B.; $650.
554—Ed. Masters; Piano, Singing; $500.
555—Ed. France; 10; *French*, El. Music; E.

Foreign Ladies, etc.

100—Ed. Paris; 10; *French* and Vocal Music; C.
103—Ed. France and Germany; *French*, *German*, Piano and Singing.
104—Ed. Russia; 8; *French*, *German*, *Eng.* and Piano; L.; $500 and Home.
105—Ed. France, Germany and England; 15; *French*, *German*, Piano, Singing, Drawing and Painting; P.; $800.
106—Ed. Paris; 4; *French*.
107—15; *French*, Piano and Rud., German and Italian; E.; $500 and Home.
108—Ed. Paris; 16; *French*; E.
109—Ed. France; 15; *French* and *German*; C.
110—Ed. Paris; 10; *French*, Drawing and Painting; P.
111—Ed. France; 4; French; P.
112—Strasbourg; 6; *French* and *German*; P.
113—Paris; 4; *French*; C.

Ladies—Drawing, Painting, etc.

160—Wyoming Sem.; 4; Drawing, Painting and French; P.; $300 and home.
161—Drawing and Painting; P.; $300 and home.
162—Ed. Cooper Inst.; 3; Drawing, Painting and Eng.; $500.
163—Ed. Lasell Sem.; 5; Drawing, Painting and Eng.; M.; $350 and home.
164—Glenwood Inst.; 2; Drawing and Painting; Cl.
165—Ed. Maplewood; 2; Drawing, Painting, French and German; E.; $500.
166—Hudson River Inst.; 15; Drawing, Painting, Piano, Organ, Melodeon and Thorough Base; $400 and home.
167—Philadelphia H. Sch.; 9; Drawing and Painting; P.
168—Cooper School of Design; 15; Drawing and Painting; F.
169—Ed. N. E. and Cooper Inst.; 10; Drawing and Painting; M.

Gentlemen—English, Maths., Classics, French, German, Military Tactics, &c.

800—Middlebury; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., Book-keeping; Cl.; $1,200.
801—Bethany; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., German, French; $1,200
802—Pa. State Nor. Sch.; Eng., Maths., El. Class., *German*, B'k-keep.; $700.
803—Lafayette; 2; Eng., Class., Maths., E. French and German; P.; $1,000.
804—Harvard; 5; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep.; $1,500.

805—Cornell; 1; Eng., Latin, Maths., French, German: $1,000.

806—Harvard; 20; Eng., Class., Maths., *French*, *Italian*, Spanish; E.; $1,500.

807—Coll. City of N. Y.; 5; Engineering, Nat. Sci., Maths., *German*, *Spanish*. Class.; $1,500.

808—Lafayette; Eng., Class., Maths.; P.; $800.

809—Ohio Wes. Univ.; 3; Eng., Class, Maths., German, B'k-keep.; M.; $1,000.

810—Brown Univ.; 5; Eng., Nat. Sci., Maths., Class., French, German; B.; $1,200.

811—Yale; 1; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep., German, French; Cl.; $1,600.

812—Academic; 12; Eng., Maths., Class., *French*, German; M.; $1,200.

813—Williams; Ehg., Class., Maths., Gymnastics; $600.

814—Albany St. Nor. Sch.; 4; Eng., Maths., B'k-keeping, Singing, Gym.; Ref.; $1,500

815—Wes. Univ.; 15; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping, German, French, Singing; P.; $1,500.

816—St. Petersburg; 8; Maths., Engineering, Mil. Tactics, *French*, *German*, *Russian*, Italian, Spanish, Drawing, Class.; E.; $1,500.

817—Lafayette; 2; Eng., Class., Maths.; P.; $1,000.

818—Albany St. Nor. Sch.; 5; Eng., Maths., Latin, B'k-keeping, Singing; $1,500.

819—Del. Lit. Inst.; 2; Eng., Maths.; $700.

820—Brown Univ.; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Mech. Drawing, B'k-keep.; Cl.; $1,000.

821—Cornell; 2; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keeping, Mil. Tactics; B.; $1,100.

822—Pa. St. Nor. Sch.; 5; Eng, Maths., *German*, Singing; L.; $500 and home.

823—Academic; 9; Eng., Class., Maths., Piano, Organ, Singing; B.; $1,000.

824—Ed. Coll., City of N. Y.; 2; Eng., Maths, Latin, Drawing, B'k-keeping; E.; $900.

825—Williams; Eng., Maths., Class., Botany, French, Piano, Singing; Cl.; $1,000.

826—Amherst; Nat. Sciences, Eng., Class., Maths.; Cl.

827—Rochester Univ.; 1; Eng, Class., Maths., German, French; B.; $1,000.

828—Dartmouth; 2; Eng., Class., Maths., Nat. Sci., Organ, Singing, Piano; $1,400.

829—Harvard; Eng., Class., Maths.; E.; $1,000.

830—Yale; 4; Eng., Nat. Sci., Class., Maths., French, German; B.; $2,000

831—Western Reserve; 10; Eng., Maths., Class., Nat. Sci.; Cl.; $1,500.

832—Academic; 7; Eng., Maths., Class., Elocution, Mil. Tactics; $800 and home.

833—Genesee; 5; Eng., Maths., Class., German, French, Drawing; $1,000.

834—Hamilton; 1; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keep.; P.; $1,000.

835—Middlebury; 10; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping; Cl.; $1,500.

836—N. Y. Public Sch.; 6; Eng., Maths., B'k-keep., Gym.; $900.

837—Pa. St. Nor. Sch.; 2; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., B'k-keeping; $600.

838—Dartmouth; 3; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keeping; Cl.; $1,000.

839—Williams; 1; Eng., Nat. Sci., Class., Maths., German; Cl.; $1,200.

840—Dartmouth; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., Gym.; B.; $1,200.

841—Ed. Dartmouth; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., *French*, German, Gym.; $1,000.

842—Ed. Dublin; 10; Eng., Maths., B'k-keep.; C.

843—Acad.; 3; Eng., Maths., B'k-keep.; $800.

844—Brown Univ.; 1; Eng, Class., Maths., *German*, French; $1,400.

845—Haverford; 3; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping; $1,000.

846—Columbia and Berlin; 1; Eng., Class., *German*, Maths., French, Piano.

847—Williams; 1; Eng., Class., Maths., Nat. Sci.; Cl.; $1,000.

848—Lafayette; 4; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keep.; P.; $1,000.

849—Univ. Penn. and Germany; 3; Eng., Class., *German*, French, Maths.; M.; $1,000.

850—Acad.; 18; English, Maths., B'k-keeping; Cl.; $1,200.

851—Acad.; 12; Eng., Maths., Class., French, German, Italian, Spanish, B'k-keeping; E.; $1,200.

852—Lafayette; 1; Eng., Class., Maths.; P.; $1,000.

853—Ohio Univ.; 2; Eng., Class., Maths., Drawing; $1,000.

854—Ed. Erskine Coll.; 7; Eng, Class., Maths., B'k-keeping; P.; $800 and home.

855—4; Eng., Maths., Nat. Sci., Latin, B'k-keep.; Cl.; $1,400.

856—Columbia; 8; Eng., Class., Maths., French, German; E.; $1,500.

857—Amherst; 5; Eng., Class., Maths., French, Gym.; P.; $1,000.

858—Cornell; 1; Eng., Class., Maths., Mil. Tactics; Cl.; $1,000.

859—Bowdoin; 1; Eng., Class., Maths., French, German, Spanish; Cl.; $1,000.

860—Bowdoin; 5; Eng., Class., Elocution, *French*, *German*; B.; $1,500.

861—Dickinson; 2; Eng., Class., Maths.; M.; $1,000.

862—Balt. City Coll.; Eng., Maths., Class., Gym.; E.; $800.

863—Transylvania Univ.; 20; Eng., Maths., Class., B'k-keeping; M.; $1,500.

864—Dartmouth; 12; Eng., Class., Maths.; B.

865—Lafayette; 4; Eng., Class., Maths., Singing; P.; $800 and home.

866—Monmouth; Eng., Maths., Class.; U. P.; $800.

867—Brown Univ.; 11; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping, French, German, Piano, Singing, Drawing, Gym.; Cl.; $1,800.

868—Williams; 13; Class, Maths., Eng, B'k-keep., *French*, German, Spanish; Cl.; $2,000.

869—Wes. Univ.; 13; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping; P.; $2,000.

870—Yale; 19; Eng., Class., Maths., B'k-keeping; $1,200.

Foreign Gentlemen—Also American Gentlemen who Teach Music.

326—Leipsic; 5; Piano, Organ, Singing, *German*, *French*; E.; $1,800.

327—Boston; 11; Piano, Singing, Organ; M.; $1,800.

328—Mus. Sem.; 8; Piano, Organ, Singing, Brass Instruments; M.; $1,000.

329—Berlin and Zurich; 3; Nat. Sci., *German*, *French*, *Polish*, Piano, Organ, Singing, Class., Maths.; C.

330—Leipsic; 3; Piano, Organ, Singing; L.

331—Cassel; 5; Piano, Organ, Singing, *German*; L.

332—Paris; 12; *French*, *Spanish*, *Italian*, *Portuguese*; U.

333—Brown Univ.; 15; Singing, Piano, Organ, Guitar, Class., Maths.; E.; $2,000.

334—So. Kensington Sch. of Art; 15; Drawing and Painting; E.; $800.

338—Piano, Organ, Singing; E.; $500.

339—Germany; 10; *German*, *French*, *Portuguese*, Spanish, Italian, Maths., Latin; L.; $1,000.

340—Munich; 10; Maths., *German*, Drawing, Painting, B'k-keeping, Music; E.; $1,200.

342—Milan; 20; Piano, Organ, Singing, *Italian*, *Spanish*, *French*; E.; $2,000.

343—Upsal; 5; *French*, *German*, Italian, Maths., Mil. Tactics, Gym., Latin; $1,000.

344—Göttingen; 2; *German*, *French*, Class., Math., Piano, Singing; L.; $800.

345—Breslau; 11; Singing, Piano, Organ, *German*, Gym.; $1,500.

346—Paris; 15; Piano, Organ, Singing, *French*; C.

347—Munich; 20; Piano, Violin, Organ, Singing, Guitar, *German*; E.

348—Neufchatel; 8; French, Maths., Drawing.

349—Berlin; 15; Class., *German*, *French*, *Spanish*, *Italian*, Drawing.

350—Aus. Mil. Acad.; 5; Mil. Tactics, *German*, *French*, *Italian*, *Spanish*, Drawing; C.; $700 and home.

351—12; *German*, *French*, Drawing, Painting, B'k-keeping.

School Properties for Sale, Rent, or Exchange.

The AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is read by most of the Principals and School Proprietors in the country, hence we have unparalleled facilities for learning of persons who desire to *buy, sell,* or *exchange* School Property. By this plan Schools may be offered without exposure to the embarrassment of *open announcements.*

Terms.—Five per cent. commission upon the amount, due as soon as transfer of property is made. No sale undertaken without preliminary fee of five dollars (for advertisement and correspondence). This may be deducted from final commission. For *renting* School Properties same as for sales; Commission being on rent for one year.

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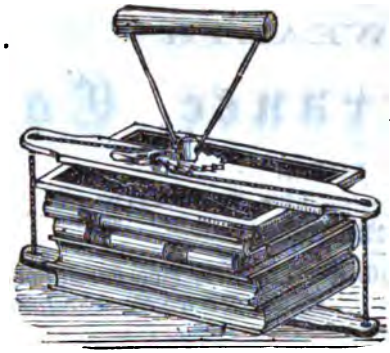

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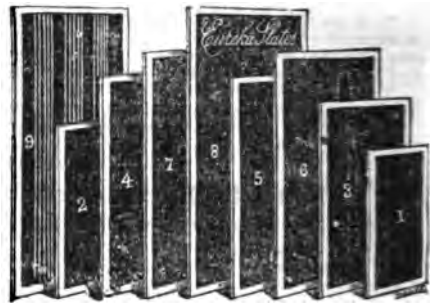

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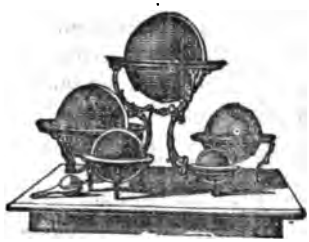

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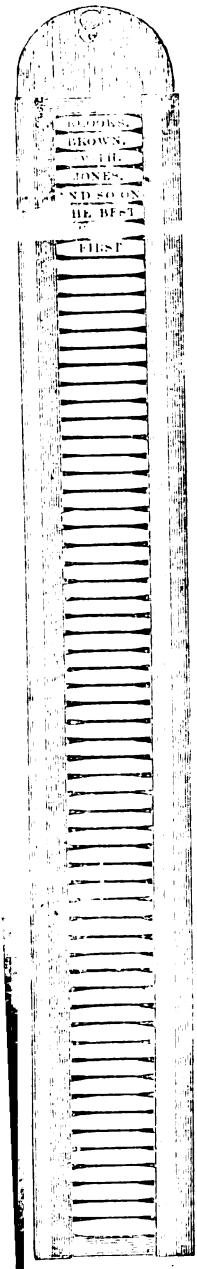

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The Index may be used to show the standing of each pupil as to scholarship alone, or scholarship together with deportment and attendance. As it is to be displayed in a prominent place, where it can be seen and examined not only by the pupils but by parents and others who visit the schools, it will necessarily have a beneficial influence on the conduct and diligence of the classes.

If desired, it can be used to show the rank of each pupil as to behavior alone, and in this case, will be a powerful aid in school government—BEING FIRST depending on BEING GOOD, every one will naturally strive to excel in good conduct.

The **School Index** is simple in construction; easily managed; can never get out of order, there being no "machinery" whatever about it; can be introduced without making any changes in the manner of governing or marking; is neat in design; and is light, portable, and *cheap*.

Wherever introduced, its use has been attended with **the happiest results,** and has called forth the praise of experienced teachers.

Price, plain, ... **$2.00**
Price, made of black walnut, . . **$2.50**

J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., *Manufacturers,*
14 Bond St., New York.

The New York Teacher

And

American Educational Monthly

A Magazine of

Popular Instruction and Literature.

September, 1871.

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14 Bond St., New York.

$2.00 per Annum. Single Numbers, 20 cts.

The School Index, or "Roll of Honor."

"Honor and shame from no condition rise:
Act well your part, there all the honor lies."

To teachers who keep a record of the work performed by their classes, and are weary of writing out, week after week, the names and relative merits of each of their pupils, the SCHOOL INDEX will be welcome, on account of the ease with which, by its aid, they can accomplish what has hitherto been an arduous task. Its construction is clearly illustrated in the accompanying cut. It consists of a frame in which are arranged small pieces of wood, on which the names of the pupils are to be written. These can be taken out and moved at pleasure. One side of the frame is hinged to admit of its being opened when any change in the position of a name-strip is required. On the other side, which is boxed, are numbers, as shown in the cut.

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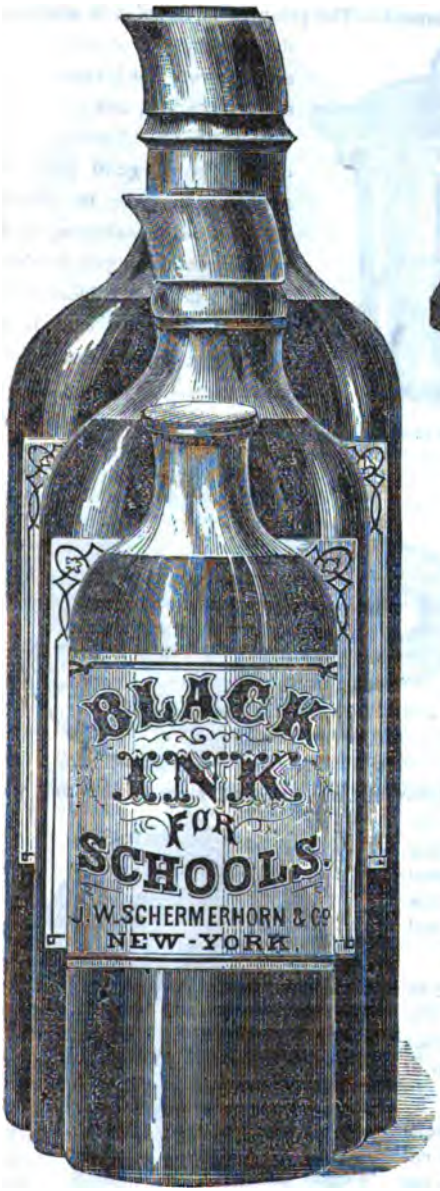
Price, plain, ... **$2.00**
Price, made of black walnut, . . **$2.50**

J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., *Manufacturers,*

14 Bond St., New York.

School and Record Ink.



(Two-thirds size.)

Our School Ink is specially put up for school use, and is better adapted to all school purposes than any other ink that we can get made. It flows freely, and flows jet black from the pen; it has no sediment; it does not "gum up" the pen and inkstand; it is unsurpassed in color, and it is cheap.

It is neatly and substantially put up, smallest size in glass cones; the half-pints, pints, and quarts in good glass bottles; and the half-gallons and gallons in square tin cans, for compact and safe shipment to any distance.

Price List of our School Ink.

Octagonal Cones, glass, per dozen,		$0.60
Half-pints,	" "	1.75
Pints,	" "	3.50
Quarts,	" "	6.00
Half-gallons, square tin cans, each,		1.00
Gallons,	" " "	2.00

On Draught, $1.50 per gallon. Cost of keg or barrel to be added.

Congress Record Ink.

No. 1 Stands	per gross,	$6.00
No. 2 "	"	10.00
Half-pints	per dozen,	2.75
Pints	"	4.00
Quarts	"	7.00

Arnold's Writing Fluid—all sizes. It being imported prices fluctuate with gold.

All other kinds of ink supplied at lowest rates when called for.

J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.,

Ink-Wells, Ink-Well Covers, etc.

Glass Ink-wells are in very great demand. The points to be regarded in selecting them are few. First, it is necessary to secure **the largest possible capacity,** and yet have them fit the usual bore of school desks. Second, **good glass** is necessary, in order **to avoid waste from breakages, and consequent damage to books.** Such an ink-well is illustrated, **full size,** in the cut. It is shown beneath a cast-iron cover, japanned and hinged.

The New Brass Ink-well Cover is struck out of sheet-brass, and lacquered. Instead of having a hinge, it revolves on a screw, and is noiseless. It is very neat, and gives a bright and ornamental appearance to the desk. It must be admitted that whatever contributes to the good appearance of school furniture, is of advantage. We cannot do too much to make the school-room look pleasant and cheerful, and thus cultivate the taste of pupils.

The Non-corroding Metallic Ink-well, shown, full size, in the cut, was invented in 1868. By a new process the interior is made insoluble by ink, securing all the advantages of glass, with increased capacity, strength, and durability. The loss and annoyance of breakage in handling and by frost is entirely disposed of.

The metal may be kept bright, giving an ornamental appearance to the desk. The cover is thoroughly secured with a brass hinge. It is made of standard size, to fit the usual bore of school desks.

Non-corroding Metallic Ink Sockets, being the same as shown in the cut **without the cover,** are supplied for use with the ordinary iron covers, or with the *new* brass covers. They are durable and economical. The size is adapted to the usual bore of school desks.

Ink-Wells, Ink-Well Covers, Ink Vents, etc.

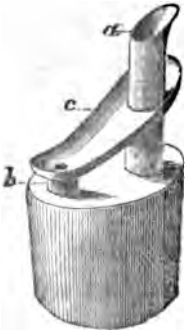
The American Locking Ink-well Cover is a *new invention*, intended to supply the need of a *locking cover* for the common glass ink-wells, or any of the ordinary ink sockets. It is easily and readily fixed to any desks without the use of screws, letting in flush with the desk top. It is made of iron, and is japanned. The cut exhibits top view.

The opening in the top is sufficient for any size pen. It also admits the key for locking the cover securely fast to the desk. The size and peculiar shape of the opening is not liable to be fitted by any knife or other instrument which pupils are likely to have about them.

The pen opening is tightly closed by a little pivoted cover which keeps out the dust, and prevents evaporation of the ink.

In short, this device has more real advantages than any of the complicated and expensive "patent locking ink-wells;" it can be used with the glass ink-wells already on hand; and is *simple*, having no screws and no hinges; it is *durable* and it is *cheap*.

Scarlett's Ink Vent for filling Inkstands and Ink-wells.—With this vent, a steady stream may be poured, and cut off promptly. All overflowing inkstands and wells, and dripping of ink upon clothing and furniture, is thus avoided. The ink escapes at *a*. Should a drop cling to the orifice, instead of falling on furniture or floor, it is conducted back to the bottle, through the inclined gutter *c*. At *b* there is a small passage to the interior of the bottle. This is too small to permit perceptible evaporation, and yet admits sufficient air to cause the ink to flow from *a*.



The convenience of this invention will be appreciated by all who have had experience in filling inkstands in the old-fashioned way. The cork is made tapering, to fit the mouth of *any* ink-bottle.

Specimens may be sent by mail for **25** cents.

PRICE LIST OF INK-WELLS, COVERS, VENTS, ETC.

Glass Ink-wells, or Sockets, shown in cut	per dozen,	**$0.75**
Iron Covers, japanned, with hinge	"	**.75**
Brass Covers, lacquered, new and extra neat	"	**1.00**
Non-corroding Metallic Ink Sockets	"	**1.00**
Non-corroding Metallic Ink-wells, wih covers	"	**1.75**
American Locking Ink-well Cover	"	**1.00**
Britannia Ink-wells, glass lined	"	**2.25**
Ink Vents, Scarlett's Patent, for filling Ink-wells	"	**2.40**

Slates, Book-slates, Fancy Slates, Slate Pencils,

SLATE RUBBERS, Etc.

New Oval or oval edges with oval round corners.

Size,	4 × 6	inches	price per doz.,	$1.30
"	5 × 7	"	" "	1.50
"	6 × 9	"	" "	2.10
"	6½ × 10	"	" "	2.20
"	7 × 11	"	" "	2.40
"	8 × 12	"	" "	2.90
"	9 × 13	"	" "	3.50
"	9½ × 14	"	" "	4.80

Round Corner Counting-House Slates. Two Slates, united with brass hinges.

Size,	6 × 9	inches,	price per doz.,	$6.87
"	7 × 11	"	" "	8.28
"	6½ × 14	"	" "	8.90
"	8 × 12	"	" "	10.68
"	7 × 15	"	" "	11.75
"	9 × 13	"	" "	12.75
"	8 × 16	"	" "	12.75
"	9½ × 14	"	" "	13.00
"	11 × 16	"	" "	19.15
"	12 × 18	"	" "	25.50

Contents of Assorted Cases of New Oval.

Sizes.	5 × 7	6 × 9	6½ × 10	7 × 11	8 × 12	9 × 13		Per Case.
No. 1	1½	2	2	3	3	0	DOZ.	$28.00
No. 2	3	2	2	2	½	½	"	22.40

Liberal discounts on quantities, and by the case.

Book Slates.—The following contain **three slates** each, hinged together, and covered with stiff covers, like a book.

Sizes in inches, 3¾ × 6½ ..... price each, **$0.67**
" " 4½ × 7¾ ..... " **.80**
" " 5¼ × 9 ..... " **1.15**

Fancy Double Slates.—Superior quality and finish, set in fine wood panelled cases, polished and highly ornamented, brass hinges, imported. Eight sizes. Price (variable with gold) ..... each, **.85** to **1.75**

SLATE PENCILS.—At lowest rates, which are variable with gold.

German.—Five, six, and seven inches, in wooden boxes..... per hundred,

Soapstone.—Four, five, and six inches, paper boxes..... " "

Composition.—Six inches, wooden boxes..... per gross,

SLATE RUBBER.—Chamois—"a gem for the school-room."

It dispenses with sponge and water, in erasing marks from the slate. No more need the teacher hear the frequent question, "Please, sir, may I go to wash my slate?" Nor need the child spit upon his slate to erase the marks.

It is made of wood and Chamois skin, arranged to bring a series of edges of skin snugly against the surface of the slate.

Every teacher will recommend it because of its real convenience and neatness. Every pupil will buy it. It costs no more than a good sponge.

No. 1—size 1 × 1½ inches..... price per 100, **5.00**
No. 2—size 2 inches square..... " " **8.00**

(Specimens, by mail, of No. 1, 10 cents—of No. 2, 15 cents.)

AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

SEPTEMBER, 1871.

SOME EXCUSE FOR DOUBTFUL READING.

THE sentimental proverb that one-half the world does not know how the other half lives, is but a fraction of the truth. There is no civilized society so democratic as not to be divided into an infinite number of ranks and classes, that mix but little with each other, and are more or less a mystery to each other, and do not even know themselves thoroughly; and in which, consequently, gossip and the love of gossip, do not abound and constitute a good deal of the spice of life. We are disposed to think that few countries can pretend to such a variety of social shades, and such a paucity of types, as the United States. It must often, indeed, have fallen to the lot of intelligent Americans to be puzzled how to answer the questions of foreigners in regard to the usages of society in this country. The moment one undertakes to generalize, he perceives how limited his knowledge is, and cannot but be; and, if honest, he ends by confessing that he can speak positively of the customs and modes of life of only his little circle of acquaintance; and that other persons, as good as himself and his friends, as well to do, and as highly respected, may very probably take their dinners in the middle of the day, eat with their knives, flog their boys with a strap, wear black broad-cloth

all the year round, or receive their guests in dressing-gown and slippers.

A painful illustration of this limited knowledge of one's countrymen has probably struck every more decent American tourist in Europe. He there meets, on the main routes of travel or settled in "colonies" in the principal cities, a class whose existence he acknowledges for the first time with a blush, and who nevertheless are the most familiar and obtrusive, and often the sole representatives of America in the eyes of Continental nations. It is at such times that the British tourist is freely forgiven his disparaging account of men and manners in the New World, and that what seemed in him downright and malicious invention, wears a dreadful aspect of reality, on which the mind refuses to dwell. The simple truth is—and it is too frequently confirmed at sight of the official representatives of the United States abroad—our country is much too vast and too heterogeneous to be cognizable, in all its elements, by even the oldest, most experienced, and most imaginative native observer.

More or less consciously this inability comes home to all of us, and leads us to seek information from every source that promises to help us either to fix our own grade in society, or to satisfy our curiosity as to the grades above and below us. Undoubtedly some light on problems of this nature the published correspondence in the Crittenden-Fair murder case, the other day, was capable of shedding; and those who resorted to it for that purpose had as good an excuse as those who read *Lothair* to learn how dukes and marquises behave, or who go to the cartoons of *Vanity Fair* for some idea of the personal appearance of the world's notables. The acquisition thus made to our previous knowledge may be petty, but it is real, and able to afford real pleasure. Who reads, for instance, the love stories in *Harper's Monthly?* is not a very profound or important inquiry, but it is something to find Mr. Crittenden, in a jealous hour, writing to Mrs. Fair: "Have you read *Harper* for March, and the continuation of 'Armadale?' Apparently, Miss Ginwilt is going to reform and be good. Do you believe that love could have such a transforming power as to make her a

good, true, and faithful woman, devil as she has been for so long a time?" And that other question, as trivial, perhaps, but which will be asked—For whom is the "poetry column" of country newspapers edited?—receives one answer in the profusion of poetical extracts with which Mrs. Fair fastens her fetters upon her guilty lover. Those who draw deeper lessons from the same revelations, need not grudge others, equally innocent and pure-minded, this superficial gratification.

Philadelphians may know exactly the social stratum which fills the obituary columns of the *Public Ledger* with the tearfully ludicrous verses of consolation and piety for which they are famous. A stranger, on the spot, might with infinite pains and the help of the directory, acquire the same information in a few months or weeks. New Yorkers and all non-residents and non-visitors of Philadelphia whose curiosity has been piqued on the subject, may be driven to choose between wilful ignorance or reading the reports of a scandal case in the courts. It is a dilemma akin to that of the anatomists when called on to decide whether the human body or the pursuit of knowledge is the more sacred; and, as in their case, too great familiarity with the mysteries of the body often seems to breed a hardness and licentiousness of character, so it is not without risk, undoubtedly, that our social philosophers (to allow them that name, though they philosophize, as M. Jourdain spoke prose, without knowing it) search for a clew to their classifications in the filthy streams of our criminal procedure. And it must be confessed that their labor will not seldom be as fruitless, as well as unsavory, as that of the savants whom Gulliver met with, who sought to recover from the human excrement the food which had produced it. Their practice is one that may be defended, but, since we are not all philosophers, is hardly to be generally recommended.

P. CHAMITE.

THE Spectroscope will reveal the presence of blood which may be detected if there is only one drop in a pint of water. The one-thousandth of a grain of blood gives the characteristic spectrum.

CARE OF THE NERVES.

THE nerves are the telegraph of the mind, and the wires should be kept "up." They are the couriers of thought and will, and they should be well cared for. They are the cobwebs of the physical telescope through which the spirit surveys and measures matter, and they should not be deranged. But, too often, they are. To use the word "nervous" in the sense of fidgety, may indeed be, as Dr. Johnson says, mere "medical cant." But the word has acquired this sense, probably, from the prevalence of the condition which it is perverted to describe. The "Christianity" of the hour is "muscular;" devoting its apparatus to the straining of the red fibres of the human body rather than the white. We are like those early California Indians who admired the ore—the cinnabar—and used it to paint their altars, but missed the living metal—the quicksilver—which lay concealed within it. The counsels which ought to be observed, however, in connection with these delicate organs are chiefly negative. The most obvious of them relate to the use of stimulants. The nerves of youth are taut enough already, without making them more so by the use of liquor, or even by the excessive employment of tea, coffee, condiments and spices. Other cautions refer to the personal habits of teachers and parents. Teachers have been known to lose their scholars, and, in some cases, their situations, on account of fidgety tricks which their pupils were found to be mimicking. So, too, with certain practices calculated to derange the nerves. Locke says, for example, that in waking children great care should be taken that "it be not done hastily, nor with a loud or shrill voice, or any other sudden violent noise." And, in accordance with this, Montaigne's father caused him "to be waked by the sound of some musical instrument, and was never unprovided of a musician for that purpose." But the damage in this regard, done by older people, is small compared with the injuries which are inflicted by youngsters upon one another. Children should especially be warned against suddenly springing out upon one another, startling one ano-

ther with fire-arms, or striking any object with which the bodies of others are in contact. The trick of giving a violent blow to an iron rail upon which another lad has been induced to place his ear, as well as that of beating two rocks together under the water where a boy is diving, has caused permanent deafness. Older people should also take pains to correct certain nervous habits to which children are prone. Among these are biting the nails, picking the teeth without occasion, chewing odds and ends, moving about without object, and jumping and screaming at insects and small surprises. Indeed, in reference to insects and animals generally, children should be distinctly encouraged to take those that are innoxious into their hands and deal with them freely. In our cooler latitudes there are very few of either the insect or the reptile tribe that need be feared. Another suggestion of a positive nature in this connection, is that youngsters should be encouraged in certain games by which they are accustomed to try and make one another laugh, wink, and so forth. The victor in these is in a fair way to come off best in certain grander trials of nerve among full-grown men.

C. R. CLARKE.

MUSIC IN OUR SCHOOLS.

IT is a good sign of the times that the study of music is slowly creeping into our schools, and getting recognition by our teachers and school committees. Still the movement in this direction is very timid, halting, and feeble. It is so because many of our grown up people are, as a whole, insensible to the advantages of music. They either do not care for it or they secretly despise it. They think it a good enough thing, but they have no heart in the effort to exalt it and give it a universal distribution. I find in men, take them as they go, a great apathy on this subject. And I know not how it is to be reached, except by what may be called common sense argument, and appeals based on severely practical grounds. Two or three of these I will try to utter now and here.

The solution how we are, as a nation, to get rid of the nasal quality in our speech, which is at once our badge and our reproach, is found in the introduction of music into our schools. Our educators have asked and asked: How shall we get ourselves clear of this shrill, head-tone, which every man, woman, and child, among us has, and win to ourselves the full, resonant chest-tone of the Europeans? Every one knows the music there is in an Englishman's voice, and better still, in an English woman's voice. How shall we get it? Not from the teachers of our schools. They cannot impart what they have not. And even if they have it, they do not succeed in giving it out. There was Professor William Russell, who was for years brought into the most intimate relations with our teachers. We all remember his resonant chest-tones. What music there was in them! What a noble thing such a voice seemed to be! But few or none caught the magic charm from him. He found us nasal, he left us nasal, and nasal we are still. Is there a remedy, and if so, what is it, and where is it to be found? It has been discovered at last. It is in and through singing. The cultivation of singing among children, will give, it is proved, a rich, resonant chest-tone—will break up the shrill head-tone; will banish the nasal twang, and make our national speech melodious. To do this implies, of course, that the exercise of singing shall not be crowded into a mere fraction of the school session, but that, like reading and spelling, it be brought into the front, and made honorable. Practical men can understand the advantage of this; men who do not care for music, can see this thing as clearly as the best trained musicians, and we ask them to think of it and to act upon it.

Another point. All children sing. They sing almost as surely as they talk. The want of "ear" may make here and there an exception, but it will be so rarely found that it need not be estimated. Not all adults sing, can sing, or can be taught to sing. Disuse of the vocal chords in childhood, will incapacitate an adult for singing, and his throat will be like a withered arm, beyond recovery for actual use. But all children can be taught to sing. All boys and girls can sing, if it suits them to do so in the way of play. You never

see little boys and girls "beg off," when they want to sing together. In Germany, it has long been considered certain that all children can sing. They do not admit exceptions, except in the case of the dumb. They not only argue from the general frequency of singing among children at play, but from the laws of music, as manifested in human language. Speech itself is but a kind of chant, and the voice always moves in musical intervals. The rising of the pitch a third, a fifth, an octave, i. e., from do to me, from do to sol, and from lower do to upper do, is by no means confined to singing and recitation; it is what we always do under the influence of the slightest excitement, and when we ask questions. Our voices always go up and down, following the musical scale, and according to musical intervals. All can sing, therefore; that is, all who can talk and who raise their voice and let it fall, according to the usual laws of speech. And yet we, in this country, assume that a great many children cannot learn to sing, and let them grow up to maturity without this great blessing.

Still another point. It has been recently discovered that all children have a certain instinct, in the matter of musical memory, which older people have not. It is something like the memory of the carrier-pigeon and the dog. A class of young children can be trained to remember the pitch of certain fixed tones, such as C, F sharp, B flat, A, and indeed all that we know in music. Remember them, I mean, from day to day. Remember them, so as to need no pitch-pipe or tuning-fork. Remember them, so that you may call out a class of boys and girls, and say to them, sing G, A sharp, C, D flat, F, or any other tone, and they will sing it as promptly and correctly as they will tell you how much is nine times six, or three times four. This is a new discovery—one of transcending interest and importance. Grown people cannot do this; only children can. And yet with such capabilities we have been content to let them grow up, and then to try to teach a handful to sing, organize a quartette here, train a solo there, get together a small chorus in another place; and all the while let the children go osing those years of their life when nature makes them

all singers, and gives them this wonderful memory of musical tones.

I expect to go into our best public schools, ere long, and hear the teacher say, "John, read the next phrase," and John shall stand up, and, without taking his pitch from anything but his memory, shall "read" in the musical sense, i. e., sing an entire passage, however difficult, taking all the sharps and flats, giving the correct expression, and reading it as well as he would a passage from Webster or Channing. This is actually accomplished in the best schools of England and Germany, and there is nothing in it chimerical or impracticable. And when this stage shall be reached, we shall be in a new era of congregational singing.—*W. L. Gage, in Congregationalist.*

YOU WAS.

WE have noticed, on several occasions of late, the use of the uncouth solecism "You was,"—uncouth at least in print, though it is somewhat common in ordinary conversation. From the character of the publications in which this form of speech has made its appearance, we are satisfied that it was not the result of ignorance or carelessness, but that it was used purposely and with a design.

It is true the phrase *you were* is frequently very vague and indefinite, and the want of a form of expression to answer the purpose here intended by the solecism under consideration, like the want of a pronoun of the common gender, is very generally felt. The strictly proper forms, *thou wert*, etc., have fallen into almost entire disuse except in solemn style as in prayer, or in poetry. As we have said, there is very frequently a vagueness in the use of the expression "you were;" so that if I ask one the question, "were you there?" a listener could not determine from the question alone whether I referred to one person only or to more than one.

The expressions, "you are," "you were," etc., are, strictly speaking, of the plural form, but as we have seen, the old

forms "thou art," "thou wert," etc., have fallen into comparative desuetude, and the plural forms of expression in these cases have come to be used even when we have reference to one individual only. So long as we retain and make use of the plural form of the pronoun when addressing an individual, so long, to be consistent, we must attach to it a verb in the plural. Not only to be consistent, but to be grammatical. There is no principle of grammar more universally recognized than the agreement of a verb with its nominative in number and person. Custom, long established and universal, which gives law to language as to everything else, has set the seal of legitimacy upon the expression "you were," whether applied to one person or to many.

But those who favor this innovation, to be consistent, must extend this intended improvement to the second person singular of the verb "to be" throughout the perodizm. We shall then have our language enriched and made more perspicuous by such expressions as "*you is*," "*you was*," "*you has been*," etc. In these new-fangled and not over beautiful expressions, as well as many others that would be deduced from the complete conjugation of the verb, we have an argument sufficient, we hope, to prevent the adoption of the proposed improvement—an argument which is, in the language of Mr. Swiveller, "a most inscrutable and unmitigated staggerer."

It will not do to claim that in the case of the second person singular in the perfect tense, we should use the word "have" and not "has," because in the *first* person of that tense we use "have" where the idea certainly is of something in the singular number, as is evident from the pronoun "I;" that is the very reason why we may use the plural form of the verb in that case, as there can be no ambiguity or indefiniteness in the expression, while the very object had in view by those who favor the innovation which we are considering, is to render the language as clear and perspicuous with reference to the second person singular as it is with reference to the first; and hence the use of the word "has" in the latter case instead of "have."

A living language, especially a composite language like the English, is susceptible of and is constantly receiving

improving touches; but we cannot see that there could be any improvement in exchanging our present well-established conjugation of the verb "to be" for such a jargon as this proposed innovation would give us.

T. J. CHAPMAN.

THE GULF STREAM.

THE study of the phenomena of the Gulf Stream has lately been undertaken with great earnestness by two competent observers—Dr. Petermann, the German geographer, and Mr. James Croll, a Scottish geologist. Dr. Petermann claims to have been the first to show that the Gulf Stream is a deep, slow-moving and permanent warm current from Newfoundland, not only to the coast of France and the parallel of 45 deg. of North lat., to which limits most of the former hydrographers had confined it, but to the British Isles, Scandinavia, Iceland, towards Greenland, Bear Island, Jan Mayen, and the West coast of Spitzbergen, to Novaia Zemlia and the Polar Basin, passing the Northmost capes of Siberia as the "Polynia," of Wrangell, its influence being felt even as far as Cape Jukon, near Behring Strait. This view he still maintains, supporting it by the vast number of observations which he has collected; but his opinions are challenged by several distinguished hydrographers.

Mr. Croll now comes forward with some new suggestions, founded upon recent observations. In a series of papers on "Ocean Currents," published in the *Philosophical Magazine*, he answers two questions—namely: "What end and purpose does the Gulf Stream serve?" and "What influence has it upon the condition of the globe?" He shows, by a chain of evidence which is apparently trustworthy, that the current of the Gulf Stream carries as much heat from the tropics as is received by the globe within sixty-three miles on each side of the equator, an amount which probably equals the entire quantity of heat received by the whole Arctic regions from the rays of the sun. Mr. Croll estimates that the stoppage of the Gulf Stream would deprive the

Atlantic Ocean of a quantity of warmth equal to one-fourth of all the heat received from the sun by that area; that if all currents ceased to flow, and each place were dependent upon the direct rays of the sun alone for its heat, the equator would be 55 deg. warmer than at present, the poles 83 deg. colder. The mean temperature of the latitude of London would be only 10 deg. London, therefore, its present actual mean temperature being 50 deg., is benefitted to the extent of 40 deg. of heat by the Gulf Stream.

Mr. Keith Johnston, Jr., in summing up the results of Mr. Croll's investigations, observes:

Basing upon Mr. Croll's estimate of the temperature (ten degrees) of the latitude of London if deprived of the warmth of the Gulf Stream, this seeming paradox must be true, that an ice-bearing current may raise the temperature of a region. Labrador has really a warm friend in the icy current which clings to its shores; for though the mean annual temperature of that country is but thirty-two degrees, still according to Mr. Croll's showing, this would be reduced by no less than twenty-two degrees were the polar stream to fail. Though considerable uncertainty necessarily exists regarding the data used, yet the general results arrived at of the enormous influence of ocean currents on the climatic conditions of the globe in distributing the heat received from the sun cannot be materially affected, and almost warrant the conclusion come to by Mr. Croll, that without ocean currents the earth would not be inhabitable.

These discoveries appear to Mr. Croll to throw a new light on the mystery of Geological climate. Were the warm currents from the equator Northward to be turned off, the Northern hemisphere would speedily pass into a state of general glaciation. Such a deflection of the currents, it is believed, might take place by a change in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit. A high condition of eccentricity would tend to produce an accumulation of snow and ice in the hemisphere whose winters occur in aphelion, exactly the opposite effect would take place in the other hemisphere which has its winter in perihelion. Then, since the trade winds owe their existence mainly to the difference of temperature which exists between the polar and equatorial

regions, it follows that the trade winds of this colder hemisphere would greatly exceed those of the warmer in strength; and would impel the warmer waters of the tropics entirely over into the opposite hemisphere, in the same manner as the Southeast trade winds of the present state of the globe, from the Southern (colder) hemisphere, now overcome the Northeastern; and aid in transferring a larger share of the equatorial waters to the warm currents of the Northern hemisphere. A similar condition of things to that which prevailed during the glacial epoch would then exist in the one-half of the earth, while a climate equal to that which geologists know to have prevailed in this hemisphere during a part of the Miocene period, when North Greenland enjoyed a climate as mild as that of England at the present day, would reign in the opposite hemisphere.

THE UNIFORMITY QUESTION AGAIN.

THE very sensible and well-reasoned report of Mr. Giles Potter, to the Legislature of Connecticut, which we print herewith, will prevent the success of any effort to enforce the use of a uniform series of school-books throughout the public schools of that State. We desire to add to Mr. Potter's array of reasons, one which would have reinforced his argument, and has a weight of its own besides; viz.: That on modern and improved principles of education the oral instruction of the teacher is of more decisive importance than any choice among the innumerable current school-books in the market. Select a hundred average common school graduates, and class them as good, bad and indifferent, say in respect to their proficiency in arithmetic, or in geography. You will not find that the classification corresponds perceptibly with any choice of arithmetics or geographies. It has been caused by two factors; first, the natural ability of the pupil, and second, the ability of the teacher.

SCHOOL BOOKS.

Mr. Potter reported from the Committee on Education, as follows:

GENERAL ASSEMBLY, *May Session, A. D.* 1871.

The joint standing committee on education, who were instructed by resolution "to inquire into the expediency of establishing a uniform set of school books for the use of common schools," beg leave to report that they have had the subject under consideration, and are of the opinion that on very many accounts it is desirable that there should be one and the same series of books used in all the schools of the State, and

First—Because the use of such uniform series would do away with the confusion which now exists in some schools where no uniform series is used.

Second—It would remedy an evil in some towns where the local boards have neglected to prescribe books.

Third—It would save expense to those children removing from one town to another, and often from one district to another in the same town.

Fourth—It would prevent frequent changes of books, which is a very great evil, for while occasional changes are desirable and sometimes indispensable for the good of schools, too frequent changes retard the progress of pupils, embarrass teachers, and tax those having care of children heavily and unjustly.

Fifth—It would prevent the introduction into the schools of inferior books by incompetent local boards for private interest.

On the other hand, your committee find great difficulties in establishing and maintaining such uniformity of books, and some objections to having such uniformity if it could be brought about and retained.

First—The expense of making a change to a uniform series. Your committee find that in the various schools of the State there are used eleven different spelling books, ten series of arithmetics, eight series of readers, seven grammars, seven histories and eleven geographies; that only about one-ninth of 119,944 children reported as attending school the past year use the same books (that is, taking the average of the number of books given above) which is the best information your committee can now obtain. In order, then, to procure uniformity, eight-ninths of the children, that is 101,061, must have new books. The average cost of new books for each child, your committee estimate at four dollars at retail. For introduction, these books can be had at half price, (not less at the present time, owing to the trade compact, whereby the publishers have agreed not to introduce books at less than half retail price). This would then cost the State, or those having children, more than $200,000; probably with cost of making the change not less than a quarter of a

million. This would be a heavy tax on the poor people of the State. If such a change is to be made, your committee would recommend an appropriation from the State treasury of $250,000 to furnish the books.

Your committee have tried to devise some method to effect the change gradually, so as to order that all new books hereafter purchased shall be of one prescribed series. But such an order, it will readily be seen, would produce a diversity of books in eight-ninths of the schools for at least five years, and at the end of that time, many that first made the change would desire another, and the State board or other constituted authority might at the end of five years (though your committee would hope not), be induced to order new books, thus there would be confusion *ad infinitum* between the old and the new prescribed books.

Second—Your committee do not doubt from what has been stated to them, that the local boards having charge of schools in the large cities and towns, would either insist that the books they use should be the books for the schools of the State, or that their city or town should be an exception to the general order; thus would arise a clashing of interests: and a general order with exceptions would effect but little.

Third—Parents and those having charge of children should have an influence in this matter of books; they have little enough, it is true, with the local boards, but with a State board they could have none at all. The local board is in a measure under their control, the State board further removed and more independent.

Fourth—The power to prescribe what books shall be used in all the schools of the State is too great a power, exposed as it would be to corrupting influences, to be placed in the hands of the board of education, or any other board. If it is true, as has been stated, that local boards have been bought when a trade of a few hundred dollars was pending, what shall be said of a State board when a trade of several hundred thousand dollars is at stake? It has already been shown that the first cost of making a change could not be less than $200,000; this in itself would not be a matter of so much importance, inasmuch as we reckon the books at half price only (but this, undoubtedly, pays a profit). But the subsequent trade would be an object worth bidding for. It probably costs, on an average, a dollar a year to furnish each child with new books when no changes are made. This would make a trade, with the present attendance in our schools, of $119,944, or to the publisher of $100,000. Now, to have this guaranteed for five or ten years, is quite an object, and publishers could well afford to pay one or two hundred thousand for the trade.

The gentleman who offered the resolution to instruct your committee paid a high compliment to the integrity and wisdom of the board of education when it proposed to place this power with its temptation in their hands; and in the opinion of your committee the com-

pliment is well deserved, and they do not doubt that, if this board is required to direct what books shall be used in all the schools, they will act wisely and independent of any mercenary influence or private interests.

But corrupt men are found in places of trust, and who can tell what men may at some future time find a place on this board, especially if it be made a place of emolument at the expense of the people. Place this power with whatever body we please, or let the general assembly itself assume to direct what book shall be used in all the schools, and the same objection holds good.

Fifth—If the board of education or any committee of the legislature itself should act with perfect integrity, unbiased by any outside influence in prescribing one set of books in the schools to the exclusion of all others, their good intention, wisdom and integrity would be assailed, the value of their work destroyed, and the interests of education thereby suffer. This objection would have but little weight with your committee had it not been for a remark made to a member of the committee by the mayor of one of our cities, that the member who introduced this matter of school books to the legislature must have been in collusion of some one publishing house. Your committee know that this is not so: that the source from whence the resolution instructing them to inquire into the subject came, is far above all influence of that kind here referred to, and that the question was introduced solely with regard to the good of the cause of education and the economy of the people of the State. But the remark shows the force of the objection your committee here present to the proposed measure; also how the best motives of the friends of education are misunderstood, and how they will be misconstrued if they attempt to act in the matter under consideration.

It has also been stated to your committee that the same books might not be equally well adapted to all the schools of the State, the graded and the ungraded schools.

Other reasons for and against the measure have been stated to your committee, but the committee consider them of little force.

In view of all the reasons mentioned in this report, your committee are of the opinion that it would not be expedient to direct or to order any board to direct what school books shall be used in all the schools of the State.

All of which is respecfully submitted. GILES POTTER,

Chairman on part of the House.

INSECTS are believed to have the power of appreciating sounds of great delicacy, and sometimes, by organs of sense which seem strangely situated. Mr. Wallace says that the Orthoptera—such as grasshoppers, etc.—have what are supposed to be ears on their fore-legs.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

THE law is silent on the subject of corporal punishment in schools. It neither grants nor withholds authority to inflict it. The whole subject is left to the judgment and discretion of the local school authorities, and to the sanction of general usage and custom. That the teacher must be clothed with authority to use the rod in certain cases is self-evident. It grows out of the very nature of the case, and of his relations to his pupils. The prudent exercise of such authority is acquiesced in by the opinions and practice of the whole country, and is almost invariably sustained by the courts, on the ground, not of statutory enactments, but of common custom, common sense, common justice, and the nature and necessity of the case. It is only the flagrant abuse of the admitted right which either society or the law is disposed to frown upon and condemn. It is undoubtedly true that, in order to support an indictment for assault and battery, it is necessary to show that it was committed *ex intentione*, and that, if the criminal intent is wanting, the offense is not made out. But this intent is always inferred from the unlawful act. The unreasonable and excessive use of force on the person of another being proved, the wrongful intent is a necessary and legitimate conclusion in all cases where the act was designedly committed. It then becomes an assault and battery, because purposely inflicted without justification or excuse. Whether, under all the facts, the punishment of the pupil is excessive must be left to the jury to decide.

What is the great end of a system of public schools supported by the State? Can the answer to this fundamental inquiry be more comprehensively epitomized than in this proposition? The chief end is to make *good citizens*. Not to make precocious scholars; not to make smart boys and girls; not to gratify the vanity of parents and friends; not to impart the secret of acquiring wealth; not to confer the means of achieving the ends of personal ambition; not to enable the youth to shine in society; not to qualify directly for professional success; not one or all of these, but simply, in the widest and truest sense, *to make good citizens*. The

State, as such, has nothing to do with the foregoing enumerated objects: it leaves them all to other agents and other influences. If parents seek brilliant scholarship, morbid precociousness, social preëminence, affluence, or professional distinction for their children, the State has nothing to say; but inasmuch as none of these things are *essential* to a true and noble citizenship, the State will not enact laws, frame systems, levy taxes, build school-houses, and employ teachers to enable those parents to carry out their designs. That such selfish and subordinate ends are often sought through, and to some extent promoted by, the public schools is true, but it is not the *object* of public schools to foster such ends. The aim of the commonwealth is higher and broader. It has to do with the child only in its civil relations, as a member of the great body politic; not, primarily, in its home relations, as a member of the family. And yet, in an important sense, the State derives its highest and truest ideas of education from that divinely instituted and most perfect form of government—that of the family. For those very habits and qualities which make home pure and tranquil and happy, being continued and transferred from the child to the citizen, insure an orderly, virtuous, and peaceful state. Indeed, the family is the smallest organized subdivision of the State, and the aims of public education are substantially accomplished when the lessons of duty to the former are simply expanded so as to comprehend the latter. If the individual families are well governed and virtuous, the commonwealth can not be turbulent and vicious; for the members of such families will recognize their obligations to the State, as its political children, not less cordially than their obligations to their parents. This view so simplifies our problem that we have now but to inquire what is essential to the welfare of the family, what it is to be in the largest sense a good *child*, and we shall know, very nearly, what is essential to the welfare of the State, what it is to be a *good citizen*. Without any argument on this point, it will be conceded that obedience to the parental authority is a primary attribute of the good child. Even so, *cordial submission to lawful authority is a primary attribute of good citizenship.—Walsh's School Lawyer.*

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER XIII.—(*Continued.*)

NESSELBORN could not prevent the professors of natural science, philosophy, and theology from taking hold of his pupil to make their experiments on him. The cosmopolitan character of his wife, and the vain excitability of his daughters had thrown open Theodore's little room to any visitor to make speaking experiments with him, to try the awakening of recollections that did not exist, to introduce subjects that were not understood. Magnetizers and homœopathists tested on him the effects of metals and medicines. The phenomena resulting from these experiments were quite wonderful. The effects of iron and gold, silver and lead proved to be quite different; *nux vomica, belladonna*, and similar drugs caused fainting and sickness to him by their mere smell. Linguists would experiment on him to find out whether language is an inborn or acquired faculty; for they had discovered and were following up his wonderful instinct as to inventing certain forms of language, and inflecting nouns and verbs. Gradually a larger store of German words was found to exist in him than it was at first supposed. The theologians stood aghast at his absolute incapacity to grasp the idea of a Supreme Being. That there were tricks and deception in the world, he had learned first of all. The poor boy experienced at the first day after his resuscitation how malicious was the nature of men. The peasants gave him whisky instead of water, snuff and dirt instead of bread. Thus distrust in all that was asserted by men took possession of his heart. He considered it as a trick, if a being was mentioned to him that made all things grow, that took care even of him, and had released him from captivity. He never saw anything but the next cause. For him, it was black earth that made the trees grow. His deliverer, to him, was a man in a green coat, who had disappeared but too soon.

In the first stage of Pestalozzi's educational system the children are simply made to repeat the words pronounced to them by the teacher. In this exercise, which was faithfully applied by Lienhard, the originator of the system has shown a deep insight into human nature. Man uses language as a fish does its fins. Neither is conscious of the agency that propels him. That words have a meaning, the child learns when manifesting his desires, his passions, his hunger, thirst, love, and anger. The words he uses are to him as the air he breathes. The facts expressed by the words: "*I am a poor orphan boy found in the forest,*" may be felt in the soul of a child, or known by means of his memory, but a clear perception of the facts will enter the soul only together with the outspoken words, rightly chosen and distinctly construed. And not only will the idea actually expressed enter his soul, but the whole crowd of perceptions associated with it, a luxuriant growth of conclusions and suppositions as to other forms and possibilities. Thinking is a process by which things out of us become parts of our minds or our own objects. A child will a hundred times say something in a loose way without making what he says an object for himself. If bidden to repeat the very same words again in the presence of another, the child will often pause and hesitate. It is thus that the word assumes a different nature, and becomes ponderous. Thus the echo of the word will reverberate in the child's thoughts, and create the faculty of thinking, which is springing into existence just when the sounds of that echo are heard.

Pestalozzi's second law is this: "Do not teach in a desultory way! Do not pass over deductions and explanations, nor indulge in fragmentary instruction! For if you do this, it is only because the order and regular progress make you tired, and being tired of your own calling, you are a bad specimen of a teacher!" Lienhard, in a letter to his father, made the following remarks in regard to this rule: "Sameness, and again sameness is the deity presiding over the teacher's hearth, his very recreation and entertainment. Ever the same! incessant as the flow of the scanty rivulet, as the monotonous sounds of the mill-wheel! Your own mastership in this scholastic sameness, my dear father, I

have ever admired. A teacher is another Sisyphus or Ixion, condemned to roll the same rock, the same wheel upward, and ever upward!"

It is true, in applying this principle to Theodore's case, Lienhard gave very wide boundaries to it, but he did it cautiously and with wise discrimination. He never made a leap from the animal to the vegetable kingdom, or from the oak to the pumpkin, from the house before him to Nubia and Abyssinia. He found that Theodore profited little if, in taking him out to the fields, he would analyze for him here a frog, and there a butterfly. According to Pestalozzi, the rich variety in nature delights only a matured mind, knowing how to classify the single phenomena. For such a one, the sharp outlines drawn by nature are in no danger of running into each other. For him, the song of a bird, and the fragrance of a rose, are things different, and only in a higher sense could he view them as identical.

"Base everything you teach on intuition!" This third of Pestalozzi's laws was carried out by Lienhard with the same conscientiousness. Thus he taught Theodore Arithmetic merely by examples. The distinction of numbers he had made clear to him by the very toys he played with. A long time was to pass before the wooden toy-horses would lose their attraction for Theodore. It would have been of no avail to explain to him that there were better prototypes of the equine idea than those petty wooden counterfeits. Theodore's delight in toys did not cease before he had mounted a real horse, and before the courage shown by him in uniting himself, as it were, with the animal, and the easy and inspiring motion on the saddle became a new source of delight. But till he could accomplish such a daring feat, a long time had to pass. For, in the beginning, Theodore was not even able to walk. Having, for years, been strapped to the cold floor of his dungeon, he was prevented from giving to his tender feet that exercise which would prepare them for their destination. They had become like the palms of his hands. In the first days after his release he had to be carried about. Then his gait became a kind of groping, and his body always seemed about to break down. It was long before his faltering and

stooping attitude and his shuffling style of walking disappeared. The regular taking of opiates had greatly contributed to weakening the unfortunate boy. He had passed in sleep more than half his life.

As in all cases of unusual excitement a slackening of public interest is sure to follow, so it happened in this case. After some months, the extraordinary event had lost its novelty, and the universal eagerness to hear news of Theodore Waldner was subsiding. The judicial investigation had been without important result. Wülfing and his wife had disclosed nothing, and, indeed, nothing could be charged against the former, except his intimacy with Hennenhöft at a time previous to the probable birth of the unfortunate child. By the disclosure of Wülfing's earlier offences his reinstatement to his former official position had become impossible. When Wülfing and his wife were released from custody, they only appeared once more in Steinthal to dispose of their property. It made some sensation that the Baron Otto de Fernau himself met them at Steinthal and treated them with the utmost consideration. It was said that Wülfing intended to emigrate to America. As for Hennenhöft, several facts had been ascertained, regarding his whereabouts, after his attempt to burn Count Wildenschwert's castle. He had been seen roaming round for a while in the country, and then had left for Havre, a port frequently used by Germans about to emigrate to America. Four years later he had reappeared, and immediately obtained the appointment as woodkeeper in the domains of Mrs. de Fernau. People generally believed that his victim, the boy Theodore Waldner, had come with him from France, and many held the opinion that Hennenhöft had been charged by some French family of high rank to place the boy out of sight.

There was also another theory according to which the foundling was believed to be a child of Countess Jadwiga, and that she had charged Hennenhöft with putting him out of the way, in order to get, after her divorce, possession of her property, which otherwise the Count, her husband, would have been entitled to keep. Other facts seemed to support this theory, the crime having been perpetrated on

her own lands, and by one of her officials. Years ago the Countess had all but fled from her husband, and this had happened almost at the same time with other events so mysterious that even the Count had not dared to lift the veil from them. The Count had made several attempts to bring about a reconciliation with his wife, all of which had failed. Then, divorce had been pronounced, and the Count had re-entered the service of government under which he had been sent beyond the ocean on a diplomatic mission. But this was not all. Upon the first rumor of what had happened, the Countess, now Mrs. de Fernau, suddenly departed for Italy. That excited grave suspicion, too weak, however, for a formal accusation against her. When, after some years, she returned, these rumors had either died away, or were drowned in the louder sounds of carriage wheels rolling up to her gate, or in the strains of music at her receptions.

Mrs. de Fernau's attitude, indeed, was such as to win for her general admiration. If people whispered that she was not altogether free from reproaches in regard to her divorce from her former husband, nobody could deny that her whole life since that time was irreproachable. Her manner of conducting the education of her two sons gathered golden opinions for her, and placed her stern sense of duty in the strongest possible light. Only one man made the remark that her great severity was self-imposed atonement for some secret guilt, burdening her conscience. And this man was her own brother-in-law, Linda's husband.

Henry de Fernau, and his brother Otto, ever since Jadwiga's second marriage, had completely ignored each other. As soon as the events connected with the finding of Theodore Waldner had become known, Henry de Fernau's neglect of his brother was turned into a feeling of hatred; but the effect on Linda was that of compassion. She was convinced that Jadwiga was innocent of Waldner's captivity, if the latter was really her and Count Wildenschwert's son. But her husband contested this opinion. He believed that Jadwiga's hatred against Count Wildenschwert had blinded her into madness and fury against the boy bearing his name.

It was about two years after Theodore Waldner's discovery, when Henry de Fernau's official duties obliged him to tarry for a day or two in the same city where Lienhard Nesselborn was performing his educational experiment with the foundling. By this time the opinion had spread that Lienhard was pursuing a wrong course, owing to the interference of his wife and his two daughters, Levana and Adelgunde. Their and Lienhard's views, indeed, differed widely. For them, Theodore Waldner was not the providential object of true and pure education, but rather the centre of a scandal in high life, perhaps a Count, a Prince, or even an heir to a throne. They surrounded their "foster-brother" with flattery; they put in his head ideas of a great and brilliant future. At one time they would intimate to the boy, how his mother, a lady of high rank, was weeping and longing for him, prevented, unquestionably, by certain secret considerations from acknowledging him before the world. Another time they would give him to understand that most probably his mother had acted fraudulently towards his father. Theodore had doubtless stood in somebody's way who, by his removal, had secured some enormous gain. Lienhard's course was much too slow for his daughters; in order to hasten it, they constantly tried to get the start of their father. Theodore was, as soon as possible, to participate in their own social culture. Thereby they sickened, and confounded the unfortunate boy's mind. Obstinacy and waywardness were planted in his child-like soul; distrust and unspeakable pain took possession of it, and he often would assert with tears a longing for his gloomy prison.

Henry de Fernau resolved to see the foundling, whose likeness with both the Count Wildenschwert and Jadwiga was unmistakable. His sharp eye soon discovered that those who found fault with Nesselborn's educational method, were right. All the town and vicinity were of the same opinion. Mr. Nesselborn, they said, had the very best intentions, but he was much too weak to counteract the mischievous influence of his family. The youth was taken to every party, where he was the special attraction for the ladies. Last winter he had even taken part in dancing

parties while, a year before, he had not even been able to walk. The public was generally aware that his zeal for learning had slackened, while the variety of new objects by which his rudimentary knowledge was more confused than enriched, was ever increasing.

President de Fernau candidly expressed his opinion to Mr. Nesselborn, who, with deep emotion, confessed his complete failure. "Yes," he said, "take the boy away from me. Heaven knows with what enthusiasm I entered upon my work. But the unhappy idea of the people that the boy was the whole world's property has destroyed my quiet labors, and counteracted my best plans. This flower of the dungeon needed quiet and secluded nursing under a glass bell. Ah! my home is not quiet and secluded! My wife has always been eager for changes. She loves society and the restless intercourse of daily life. So do my daughters, and this has prevented me from keeping the control of my pupil. I confess, it is my greatest desire to be relieved from this duty. The boy is like the bud of a flower, prematurely removed from its stem to unfold it by artificial means. The bud must once more be restored to its stem, once more he must become a child to be brought up in the midst of plainest nature. Else he will be ruined. He surely will become a worthless member of society, unless we can take him back to the very threshold of his former tomb, and carefully and slowly pave his new road into the world."

"But how can we accomplish this?" interrupted the President, calmly and with sympathy.

Lienhard proposed his own father as most fit for recommencing Theodore Waldner's education. Although Mr. de Fernau considered it as dangerous in many respects to transfer the unfortunate boy to the very vicinity of his former prison life, he nevertheless assented to the proposed change after he had found that old Mr. Nesselborn was eminently qualified to correct the great mistakes which had been committed in the experiments to which Theodore Waldner had been subjected.

Six months after Theodore's transfer to Steinthal, Lienhard Nesselborn moved into the metropolis, where he established a great educational institute, intended to compete

with the gymnasia of the city. The establishment had a surprising success, and its fame soon extended far beyond the frontiers of Germany. It was whispered that Lienhard had received the necessary funds from the Baron Otto de Fernau and his wife Jadwiga.

THE MUSCULAR STRENGTH OF INSECTS.

THE strength of an insect can be finely illustrated by a feat that was once performed by a beetle—*oryctes maimon*—a variety that is quite common in the United States. The beetle, for want of any box at hand, was put beneath a quart bottle full of milk upon a table, the hollow at the bottom allowing him room to stand upright. Presently, to the surprise of all in the room, the bottle began slowly to move and glide along the smooth table, propelled by the muscular power of the imprisoned insect, and continued for some time to perambulate the surface. The weight of the bottle and its contents could not have been less than three pounds and a half, while that of the beetle was about half an ounce, so that it readily moved a weight one hundred and twelve times exceeding its own. A better notion than figures can convey will be obtained of this feat by supposing a lad of fifteen to be imprisoned under the great bell of St. Paul's, which weighs 12,000 pounds, and to move it to and fro upon a smooth pavement by pushing within against the side.

We have another instance of insect power that is quite as remarkable as the one just related. A small kind of carabus, an elegantly formed ground beetle, weighing three and a half grains, was once fastened by a silk thread to a piece of paper, a weight having been previously laid upon the latter. At a distance of ten inches from its load, the insect was able to drag after it, upon an inclined plane of twenty-five degrees, very nearly eighty-five grains; but when placed on a plane of five degrees inclination, it drew after it one hundred and twenty-five grains, exclusive of the friction to be overcome in moving its load.

CHAIRS.

A CHAIR must have been one of the most ancient of inventions. After the use of fire, after the rudest forms of grinding and weaving, something to sit down upon must have presented itself as the next desideratum. But it must not be supposed that a chair was the direct result. As Lord Lytton says: "Man has only given to him, not the immediate knowledge of the perfect, but the means to strive towards the perfect." And he elsewhere observes: "Man must build a hut before he can build a Parthenon."

At work in the primeval forest, felling trees and clearing the ground, man may first have experienced the comfort of a raised seat by placing himself on the stump of a tree. But, however eligible this support might be in other respects, it labored under the disadvantage of being immovable. But blocks could be sawed off so as to become moveable. A brilliant thought! no sooner conceived than acted upon; and perhaps several generations passed before some genius hit upon the idea of obviating the cumbersomeness of these heavy, solid blocks, by fastening a piece of plank on three supporters, and producing a three-legged stool. The tradition runs that Tarquin introduced the ivory curule chairs into Rome; be this as it may, they were in use in the time of Brutus; who, though he destroyed the kingly power, and changed the Constitution of Rome from a Monarchy into a Republic, knew how far he could safely go, and did not dare to touch the chairs. The prætors and ediles who were permitted to occupy them, esteemed the privilege so highly that they retained the curule chair at home after their term of office had expired, as a proof of the dignity to which they had attained. These Roman officials were so much attached to their seats that they would not part with them when they went abroad, but had chairs placed upon wheels, and in these chariots—often elaborately ornamented with gold and precious stones—they showed themselves to the admiring, unseated multitude. The Romans considered it an honor to ride in these wheeled curules, that were "remarkably high," Pliny tells us—a convenient method of acquainting the spectators with the degree of homage

expected from them, equivalent to the method employed by artists of olden times, who always depicted kings and heroes as at least twice the size of ordinary men.

"There is nothing new under the sun," saith the preacher. At the period known in art language as the Renaissance, the modern European was struck with the idea of going about in chairs. About the year 1581, covered chairs, slung on poles, were invented at Sedan, whence the name of these conveyances. Sir Sanders Duncombe obtained a patent for the Sedan chair in 1634, and by 1649 they were in general use. In 1711, an act was passed limiting the number of licensed Sedan chairs to 200, but in 1726 it was increased to 400. This act did not affect the use of private chairs.

When the favorite—Buckingham—used this mode of conveyance, he was hooted at by the public, who cried that he was employing his fellow-creatures to do the service of beasts; but this prejudice soon gave way, and the Sedan chair, often handsomely gilt and painted, became part of the furniture of the hall in the houses of the nobility and the wealthier classes, and the chairmen formed a part of every large establishment.—*Temple Bar.*

THE SUNBEAM.

THE greatest of physical paradoxes is the sunbeam. It is the most potent and versatile force we have, and yet it behaves itself like the gentlest and most accommodating. Nothing can fall more softly and more silently upon the earth than the rays of our great luminary,—not even the feathery flakes of snow, which thread their way through the atmosphere as if they were too filmy to yield to the demands of gravity like grosser things. The most delicate slip of gold leaf, exposed as a target to the sun's shafts, is not stirred to the extent of a hair, though an infant's faintest breath would set it into tremulous motion. The tenderest of human organs,—the apple of the eye,—though pierced and buffetted each day by thousands of sunbeams, suffers no pain during the process, but rejoices in their sweetness, and

blesses the useful light. Yet a few of those rays, insinuating themselves into a mass of iron, like the Britannia Tubular Bridge, will compel the closely knit particles to separate and will move the whole enormous fabric with as much ease as a giant would stir a straw. The play of those beams on our sheets of water lifts up layer after layer into the atmosphere, and hoists whole rivers from their beds, only to drop them again in snows upon the hills or in fattening showers upon the plains. Let but the air drink in a little more sunshine at one place than another, and out of it springs the tempest or the hurricane, which desolates a whole region in its lunatic wrath. The marvel is, that a power which is capable of assuming such a diversity of forms, and of producing such stupendous results, should come to us in so gentle, so peaceful, and so unpretentious a guise!

NO BONES IN THE OCEAN.

MR. JEFFREY has established the fact that bones disappear in the ocean. By dredging it is common to bring up teeth, but rarely ever a bone of any kind; these, however compact, dissolve if exposed to the action of the water but a little time. On the contrary, teeth—which are not bones any more than whales are fish—resist the destroying action of the sea-water indefinitely. It is, therefore, a powerful solvent. Still the popular opinion is that it is a brine. If such were the case, the bottom of all the seas would, long ago, have been shallowed by immense accumulations of carcasses and products of the vegetable kingdom constantly floating into them.

Dentine, the peculiar material of which teeth are formed, and the enamel covering them, offer extraordinary resistance to those chemical agencies which resolve other animal remains into nothingness. Mounds in the West, tumuli in Europe and Asia, which are believed to antedate sacred history for thousands of years, yield up perfectly sound teeth, on which time appears to have made no impression whatever.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?

EDUCATION FOR GAINING A LIVELIHOOD.

PART FIVE.

WE need not insist on the value of that knowledge which aids indirect self-preservation by facilitating the gaining of a livelihood. This is admitted by all; and, indeed, by the mass is perhaps too exclusively regarded as the end of education. But while every one is ready to endorse the abstract proposition that instruction fitting youths for the business of life is of high importance, or even to consider it of supreme importance; yet scarcely any inquire what instruction will so fit them. It is true that reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught with an intelligent appreciation of their uses; but when we have said this we have said nearly all. While the great bulk of what else is acquired has no bearing on the industrial activities, an immensity of information that has a direct bearing on the industrial activities is entirely passed over.

For, leaving out only some very small classes, what are all men employed in? They are employed in the production, preparation, and distribution of commodities. And on what does the efficiency in the production, preparation, and distribution of commodities depend? It depends on the use of methods fitted to the respective natures of these commodities; it depends on an adequate knowledge of their physical, chemical, or vital properties, as the case may be; that is, it depends on Science. This order of knowledge, which is in great part ignored in our school courses, is the order of knowledge underlying the right performance of all those processes by which civilized life is made possible. Undeniable as is this truth, and thrust upon us as it is at every turn, there seems to be no living consciousness of it: its very familiarity makes it unregarded. To give due weight to our argument, we must, therefore, realize this truth to the reader by a rapid review of the facts.

For all the higher arts of construction, some acquaintance with Mathematics is indispensable. The village carpenter, who, lacking rational instruction, lays out his work by em-

pirical rules learnt in his apprenticeship, equally with the builder of a Britannia Bridge, makes hourly reference to the laws of quantitative relations. The surveyor on whose survey the land is purchased; the architect in designing a mansion to be built on it; the builder in preparing his estimates; his foreman in laying out the foundations; the masons in cutting the stones; and the various artisans who put up the fittings; are all guided by geometrical truths. Railway-making is regulated from beginning to end by mathematics: alike in the preparation of plans and sections; in staking out the line; in the mensuration of cuttings and embankments; in the designing, estimating, and building of bridges, culverts, viaducts, tunnels, stations. And similarly with the harbors, docks, piers, and various engineering and architectural works that fringe the coasts and overspread the face of the country; as well as the mines that run underneath it. Out of geometry, too, as applied to astronomy, the art of navigation has grown; and so, by this science, has been made possible that enormous foreign commerce which supports a large part of our population, and supplies us with many necessaries and most of our luxuries. And now-a-days even the farmer, for the correct laying out of his drains, has recourse to the level—that is, to geometrical principles. When from those divisions of mathematics which deal with *space*, and *number*, some small smattering of which is given in schools, we turn to that other division which deals with *force*, of which even a smattering is scarcely ever given, we meet with another large class of activities which this science presides over. On the application of rational mechanics depends the success of nearly all modern manufacture. The properties of the lever, the wheel and axle, etc., are involved in every machine—every machine is a solidified mechanical theorem; and to machinery in these times we owe nearly all production. Trace the history of the breakfast-roll. The soil out of which it came was drained with machine-made tiles; the surface was turned over by a machine; the seed was put in by a machine; the wheat was reaped, threshed, and winnowed by machines; by machinery it was ground and bolted; and had the flour been sent to Gosport, it might have

been made into biscuits by a machine. Look round the room in which you sit. If modern, probably the bricks in its walls were machine-made; by machinery the flooring was sawn and planed, the mantel-shelf sawn and polished, the paper-hangings made and printed; the veneer on the table, the turned legs of the chairs, the carpet, the curtains, are all products of machinery. And your clothing—plain, figured, or printed—is it not wholly woven, nay, perhaps even sewed, by machinery? And the volume you are reading—are not its leaves fabricated by one machine and covered with these words by another? Add to this that for the means of distribution over both land and sea, we are similarly indebted. And then let it be remembered that according as the principles of mechanics are well or ill used to these ends, comes success or failure—individual and national. The engineer who misapplies his formulæ for the strength of materials, builds a bridge that breaks down. The manufacturer, whose apparatus is badly devised, cannot compete with another whose apparatus wastes less in friction and inertia. The ship-builder adhering to the old model, is outsailed by one who builds on the mechanically-justified wave-line principle. And as the ability of a nation to hold its own against other nations depends on the skilled activity of its units, we see that on such knowledge may turn the national fate. Judge, then, the worth of mathematics. —*Herbert Spencer.*

PROFESSOR HUXLEY advocates the use of the Bible as a reading book in schools in language of unusual warmth, which may well surprise those of his critics who charge him, rather hastily, we think, with "materialism" and "atheism." His accusers may take comfort in the old adage, "Fas est, et ab hoste doceri."

These are the words of the eminent naturalist:

"I have always been strongly in favor of secular education, in the sense of education without theology; but I must confess I have been no less seriously perplexed to know by what practical measures the

religious feeling, which is the essential basis of conduct, was to be kept up, in the present utterly chaotic state of opinion on these matters, without the use of the Bible. The pagan moralists lack life and color, and even the noble Stoic, Marcus Antonius, is too high and refined for an ordinary child. Take the Bible as a whole; make the severest deductions which fair criticism can dictate for shortcomings and positive errors; eliminate, as a sensible lay teacher would do, if left to himself, all that it is not desirable for children to occupy themselves with—and there still remains in this old literature a vast residuum of moral beauty and grandeur. And then consider the great historical fact that, for three centuries, this book has been woven into the life of all that is best and noblest in English history; that it has become the national epic of Britain, and is familiar to noble and simple, from John-o'-Groat's House to Land's End, as Dante and Tasso were once to the Italians; that it is written in the noblest and purest English, and abounds in exquisite beauties of mere literary form; and, finally, that it forbids the veriest hind who never left his village to be ignorant of the existence of other countries and other civilizations, and of a great past, stretching back to the farthest limits of the oldest nations in the world. By the study of what other book could children be so much humanized and made to feel that each figure in that vast historical procession fills, like themselves, but a momentary space in the interval between two eternities; and earns the blessings or the curses of all time, according to its effort to do good and hate evil, even as they also are earning their payment for their work?"

ANECDOTE OF DICKENS' READING.

A BOSTON lady of excellent good sense, but who was not so familiar with the great novelist's writings as she might have been, attended one of the readings, and afterwards described her experience as follows: "I went in and took a seat well in front. I was quite alone, and did not see a single familiar face around me. Presently a man rushed on the stage and cried, 'Marley was dead, to begin with!' It was so sudden and unexpected that the announcement quite upset me. I turned round to the people immediately behind me, and asked: 'What did that man say?' They, being of the *haute noblesse*, stared at me an instant, but answered not a word. 'For Heaven's sake,' said I, 'will you tell me what it means—*who* is dead?' But not a word did they vouch-

safe in response. Their dumbness intensified my wonder and mystification; and a third time I besought them: 'Gracious goodness! will none of you tell me what is the matter? Somebody's dead—can't you speak?' They gorgonized me from head to foot with a stony *Boston* stare, exchanged glances of derision, but opened not their mouths. I found I could get no information from that quarter, so I looked about me, and seeing no indications of general dismay, but everybody intently regarding the man on the stage, I presently came to the conclusion that he must be Dickens himself, and that there wasn't anybody dead, after all."

FLOATING ISLANDS.

GIPPSLAND is a Province of Victoria. It is bounded by the Australian Alps on all sides except on the South, which the sea washes far over one hundred miles. It may be called the Piedmont of Australia, rich fertile plains intersected by rivers flowing into a lake system extending all along the coast, and separated from the sea by a sandy narrow ridge, with one navigable opening. A local paper, the *Gippsland Times*, gives the following description of "floating islands" on the lakes:

"As one of the Gippsland Steam Navigation Company's steamers was recently crossing Lake Wellington, the man at the wheel suddenly observed land right in the track of the steamer, and apparently only a short distance from the straits separating Lakes Wellington and Victoria. He called the captain's attention to the strange sight, and on coming up close, the land was discovered to be a small island, about thirty yards in length by twenty broad. It was covered with a rich coating of luxuriant grass; and small trees, tea tree, and bush shrubs, appeared to be growing in profusion. The only occupants of this remarkable apparition were a few pigs, feeding away contentedly and apparently enjoying their novel journey by water. A second island of the same description, but much smaller, was noticed a little farther on, but this had evidently detached itself from the larger piece of land, or most probably had been separated by the rooting depredations of the porkers.

"From what portion of the main land this floating island came, is

of course, matter of conjecture, but it is known that a portion of the soil at Marley Point, on the southern shore of Lake Wellington, became detached recently, and floated miles across the lake with some twenty or thirty head of pigs aboard. As long as the wind drove it in that direction, the island drifted toward M'Lennan's Straits, but a change of wind brought it back again, after a three days' trip, within a mile of the spot from which it had broken away. We believe it is the opinion of the district surveyor, Mr. Dawson, that the area of the Roseneath run, west of Lake Wellington, has been increased some twenty or thirty acres by the addition of drift islands.

A CALIFORNIA OBITUARY.

BODDLEPOPSTER is dead! The bare announcement will plunge the city into unspeakable gloom. The death of Boddlepopster was most untimely; he should have died twenty years ago. Probably no man of his day has exerted so peculiar an influence upon society as the deceased. Ever foremost in every good work out of which anything could be made, an unstinted dispenser of every species of charity that paid a commission to the disburser, Mr. Boddlepopster was a model of generosity, and weighed at the time of his death one hundred and ninety odd pounds.

Originally born in Massachusetts, but for ten years a resident of California and partially bald, possessing a cosmopolitan nature that loved a York shilling as well, in proportion to its value, as a Mexican dollar, the subject of your memoir was one whom it was an honor to know, and whose close friendship was a luxury that only the affluent could afford. It shall ever be the writer's proudest boast that he enjoyed it at less than half the usual rates. Mr. B. was the founder of the new, famous Boddlepopster Institute, and for some years preceding his death suffered severely from a soft corn, which has probably done as much for agriculture as any similar concern in the foothills of our State.

In 1863 he was elected an honorary member of the Society for the Prevention of Humanity to Mongolians, and but for the loss of an eye in carrying out its principles, would have been one of the handsomest whites that ever resided among

us. There is little doubt that he might have aspired to any office in the gift of the people, so universal was the esteem in which he was held by those he voted for. In an evil moment he was induced to associate himself in business with the Rev. Albert Williams, and though he speedily withdrew from the firm, he was never wholly able to eradicate the disgrace from his constitution, and it finally carried him to his grave. His last words, as he was snuffed out, were characteristic of the man; he remarked: "Fetch me that catnip tea!" The catnip consolation arrived too late to be of any use; he had gone! Farewell, noble heart, pure soul, bright intellect! We shall meet again.

IS THE EARTH GROWING SMALLER?

AN argument was not long since presented by the geologist, Mr. Lesley, to the National Academy of Sciences, to the effect that the earth has sensibly shrunk since its original formation as a solid body. The intimation might be accepted with equanimity, but it seems that we are to understand the process is still going on. This, we must admit, is a much more serious affair. If the earth is to keep on getting smaller, and population to keep on getting larger, where is the thing to end? Clearly if the two processes are to continue, and that by appreciable gradations, the time can be predicted, with the certainty of an eclipse, when the world will no longer be able to support its inhabitants, and the systematic destruction of a part of mankind will become unavoidable in order to preserve the race.

It is plain that with this contingency before us, various modifications will naturally have to be made in social and political estimates. Such reducers of the population, for example, as Herod or Von Moltke, may appear, in the light of this new revelation of science, to be benefactors of their species in a sense previously undreamed of by humanitarians; Mr. Malthus may shine as a far more exalted person than before, and even the Oriental sacrifices of Juggernaut and the Suttee may become invested with charms that the

wildest of fanatics have hitherto failed to impute to them. We are accustomed to believe that our boundless Western prairies will sustain the most extraordinary number of people. Every now and then some ingenious statistician amuses himself by reckoning up the billions who will live and flourish out there in assignable periods. But if the national acres are to grow "small by degrees and beautifully less," while, with our mill-stream immigration, the census of each decade soars higher and higher, we repeat, where is this thing to end?

Let us hasten to reassure those who are solicitous for the welfare of posterity, and say that, like the possible event of its being struck by a comet, the chance of the earth's serious diminution in size is exceedingly remote. Planets tend to approach each other, no doubt, but the catastrophe need not in any case be gravely apprehended. Whether the gradual cooling of the earth, which we know to be going on, or the diminishing velocity of its rotation, are the sole causes of the imputed shrinkage, or not, the closest calculations arrive at so limited a change, in a prodigious term of years, that all fears on the subject can rationally be dismissed. Under any circumstances, on the basis of Laplace's demonstration, that the earth's rotation could not have been less than one-tenth of a day as its maximum of velocity, the then surface could have been, we are assured, only 130 per cent. larger than now; and, without going into the vexed question of the age of our planet, we may fairly take comfort in this assurance.

Yet another source of consolation is open to us. If the earth shrinks, who knows but that men will shrink too? We have been told on high authority that "there were giants in those days," and, on authority more recent and less trusty, that the famous effigy of Cardiff was one of them. It cannot be disputed, whatever the rapacity of the growing biped, that the consumption of food by mankind would vary in the ratio of their bulk. This, then, is a consoling reflection, even on the theory that the worst comes to the worst. Perhaps, after all, Swift only anticipated the future in his famous romance, while at the same time realizing the remote past; and, possibly, whereas our world was once peopled

by creatures like those of Brobdingnag, it may be occupied hereafter—when its diameter is fifty miles or so—by beings like the mannakins of Laputa. We advise our readers, however, to laugh at all such wild speculations whenever and wherever they may meet with them.—*N. Y. Times.*

MONT CENIS TUNNEL.

THE greatest engineering work of the great century of engineering has at last been accomplished. The Mont Cenis Tunnel is, perhaps, a more wonderful triumph of genius and perseverance than the Atlantic Telegraph or the Suez Canal. Its length is seven miles and three-fifths, it is twenty-six feet and a quarter in width, and nineteen feet eight inches in height, and will carry a double line of rails from France, under the Alps, to Italy. The tunnel, which is of course unfinished as yet, has been cut by atmospheric machinery through the solid rock, schist, limestone, and quartz, the air which moved the chisels escaping from its compression to supply the lungs of the workmen. The work has been fifteen years in progress, without reckoning the time spent in preliminary investigations; it has been carried on continuously from 1861 till now. The railway up the Sion valley will now, before long, carry its passengers straight through from Fourneaux to Bardonèche, and it will be possible to go from Paris to Milan without climbing an Alpine pass, or even changing the railway carriage. So far as railway transit is concerned, there are therefore no more Alps. The great mountain chain has been finally removed. This immense work has been carried out under vast difficulties. There could be no shafts as in the short tunnels which pierce our little English hills, and all the *debris* had to be carried back to the entrance. It was begun at both ends, and the workmen who thus started, seven miles apart, with a mountain chain between them, have met as accurately as though there had been but a hill to pierce. As a triumph of engineering skill, we must mark this work as one of the new wonders of the world.

TRIENNIALS.

A FEMALE friend of ours, prone to intermeddle with all knowledge, has been puzzling her brains for a fortnight over a Triennial Catalogue of some college or other, sent to her, as we suppose, by her young man. Having consulted "Watts on the Mind," the unabridged "Webster," and the "Young Lady's Assistant" in vain, she appeals to our editorial omniscience for light, which we graciously proceed to impart for the benefit of all similarly benighted persons, as followeth:

A Triennial Catalogue is so-called because it is published semi-occasionally; or, according to some etymologists, because that is the name of it. It is generally printed in what, for want of a distinctive term, is often styled Latin, in order that the information contained in it may be kept from the vulgar; though not seldom, as in the last Harvard Triennial, it ends, ignominiously enough, in such English as may be "understanded of a common man." This is on account of the supply of catalogical Latin being insufficient for so thick a pamphlet. The catalogue keeps the judicious border line between the intelligible and the unintelligible, being gloriously hazy, and by consequence indefinitely learned and profound. If you know a man's name beforehand and the year in which he graduated, you will generally recognize it at once by turning to the proper page. It is not agreed whether William should be Latinized by Gulielmus or Guilielmus or Wilhelmus; but should you see either of these words in the catalogue, you can always guess that it means William. Henricus seems to be the Latin for Harvey when it doesn't stand for Henry, and Carolus always means Charles or Carl or Carolus or something of that sort. Jacobus may be Englished by Jacobus or Jacob for James. To change an English word into Latin you add *us* if you should happen to feel like it. The rule for changing Latin into English is to leave the *us* off, if it ought not to be on. Like most other rules, however, this last has exceptions. Ludovicus, e. g., is not thus cheaply shortened into Lewis, nor is Hieronymus thus easily transmogrified

into Jerome. The reason why this ending is not added to surnames as well as christian names is perhaps this, that only dubbeleldees would then be able to read the catalogue, and of these only the few who do not write their own title "LL. D." *In* and *out* are correlated ideas, and hence probably it comes that "e cong," and "in cong," mean precisely the same thing—in triennial Latin.

Now, if after all the tenebrous illumination we have fuliginously projected upon this crepusculous subject any ignoramus should have the impertinence further to interrogate us, and inquire what mean those symbols, J.C.D., S.P.A. SS. LL. PP., Curs. Pub. Pref. Gen., Chin. Aul. Leg., and the like, we should be at liberty to respond only by a counter query, don't you know your abbreviations? We learned 'em when we were small. As to divulging the secret meanings wrapped up in such mystic formulas—never! We hope we know our duty better. Don't expect us to betray the cause of classical learning! Should we reveal this, the catalogue might just as well have been in the vulgar tongue. We will just hint, however, that the meaning of "Rerumpub. Fœd. Cur. Postulatt. Jurid." will very likely occur to you, if you have time to peruse the life and works of the eminent man to whose name they are attached. We will say frankly, however, that we suspect that "Neo-Caes." has something to do with new cider, or champagne.

ENGLISH SYNONYMS.

THE copiousness of the English tongue, as well as the difficulty of acquiring the ability to use its immense vocabulary correctly, is well exhibited in the following array of synonymous words; which, if not new, are yet a capital illustration of the nice distinctions, which differ from so many of our vocables. It is no wonder that we slip occasionally, even the wariest of us!

A little girl was looking at the picture of a number of ships, when she exclaimed, "See, what a *flock* of ships!"

We corrected her by saying that a flock of ships is called a *fleet*, and that a fleet of sheep is called a *flock*.

And here we may add for the benefit of the foreigner who is mastering the intricacies of our language in respect to nouns of multitude, that a flock of girls is called a *bevy*, that a bevy of wolves is called a *pack*, and a pack of thieves is called a *gang*, and a gang of angels is called a *host*, and a host of porpoises is called a *shoal*, and a shoal of buffaloes is called a *herd*, and a herd of children is called a *troop*, and a troop of partridges is called a *covey*, and a covey of beauties is called a *galaxy*, and a galaxy of ruffians is called a *horde*, and a horde of rubbish is called a *heap*, and a heap of oxen is called a *drove*, and a drove of blackguards is called a *mob*, and a mob of whales is called a *school*, and a school of worshipers is called a *congregation*, and a congregation of engineers is called a *corps*, and a corps of robbers is called a *band*, and a band of locusts is called a *swarm*, and a swarm of people is called a *crowd*, and a crowd of gentlefolks is called the *élite*, and the élite of the city's thieves and rascals are called the *roughs*, and the miscellaneous crowd of the city folks is called the *community*, or the *public*, according as they are spoken of by the religious *community* or the secular *public*.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW YORK.—Concerning what was accomplished by the NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, at its recent session in Lockport, Mr. F. B. Perkins, the *Tribune's* able correspondent, discourses as follows:

The female teachers were as three or four to one male, at least. The ladies were some of them beautiful, many lovely, and every one bright and intelligent. The men were seldom handsome, but on an average of fine temperament, large brain, excellent moral and spiritual tone; and all were interested in the work. A cleanlier-souled assemblage, whether of clergy or laity, perhaps never met; because the ideal teacher needs all a clergyman's virtues plus virtues more. He or she should contain a whole missionary minus

his weak stomach, and a whole Hercules minus his weak morals. There are few such.

The papers and addresses were significant and meritorious, on the whole. Some speakers labored under the disadvantage of bad habits or no habits of oratory. Mixtures of metaphor appeared here and there; as where a speaker in two consecutive sentences asserted that if a moral earthquake was cut it would bleed. But the defects were trifling. "Papers are limited to fifteen and lectures to thirty minutes," said the printed programme, and President Steele resolutely though delicately decapitated every man at the moment, unless a vote of the Association extended the time.

But what did the Association do? They listened and appreciated and were interested. It is not every audience of 500 or 600 professionals and as many citizens of the vicinage who are capable of doing that; but this audience did not miss a point nor misjudge an utterance. Yet one cannot help wishing they could have seen their way clear to some one strong appeal in favor of some one desirable educational reform or improvement or experiment. Suppose they had passed such a resolution as this:

Resolved, That our members are requested to observe and experiment during the coming year upon the proper extent and method of teaching the botany and natural history of our own State, by oral instruction, and from the objects themselves; and to report their conclusions at the next meeting.

Would that not have been sure to give a decided impulse to these extremely important and little taught departments of real knowledge? Such a direct summons would stimulate to actual effort more than even the very intelligent and justly conceived papers which were read on the subject.

No full role of the whole attendance of teachers was made, the only list being the Treasurer's entries of members paying their dues.

A committee was appointed to prepare for a uniform and proper mode of collecting educational statistics throughout the United States. Doubtless, if a really good scheme is offered, the Federal Educational Bureau could be brought to adopt it. But neither body, nor anybody, can obtain these statistics without either pay or else penalty. Those which the United States obtains by using both are sufficiently faulty. There were no details in the exercises of processes of oral instruction in the form of specimen series of question and answer, or exchange of thought, between teacher and pupil, although the most usual want of teaching is a mastery of these ultimate details of communicating knowledge and of training in correct thought. The doings of the Association, if not as efficiently practical as is to be

wished, were yet very creditably so. It is a living body, wide awake, perfectly healthy in tone and tendency, and as the discussions on Object Teaching, on Corporal Punishment, and on Classical and Real Instruction showed, conservatively progressive on the educational questions of the day. Not one lady took part in any debate. Miss Parsons's paper, however, entitled "Hints on Teaching," was one of the best of the session, both in matter and manner. Miss Cleveland's poem contained many smart things, but its fate before the audience added one more evidence that the female larynx is at present not adapted to fill large rooms. Miss Cleveland was not heard at all by a quarter of those present.

The citizens of Lockport were very hospitable to their visitors, the ladies being boarded and lodged gratis, and the gentlemen at very reasonable rates. The Saratoga people are smarter. They invite the Association to meet there next year to pay not over $2 per human being per day for the privilege, and to buy their own Congress water beside.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—KIMBALL UNION ACADEMY (Meriden), graduated a class of thirty at its anniversary, June 29th—twenty-three young men and seven young women. This school, since its incorporation in 1813, has taken rank among the first classical schools in the country. For thirty-six years it has been under the direction of one man, Cyrus S. Richards, LL. D. Failing health has at last compelled Dr. R. to hand in his resignation, greatly to the regret of all connected with the institution, and the Rev. J. E. Goodrich of Burlington, Vt., has been appointed to the vacant post. Mr. G. was lately Superintendent of the public schools of Burlington. An effort is to be made at once to increase the funds of the school, by an additional $100,000.

RHODE ISLAND.—The Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the Commissioner of public schools, gives the following statistics: number of districts, 412; number of summer schools, 583; winter schools, 635; number of teachers, winter, 711, summer, 651; average length of school year, 34 weeks; average wages of teachers per month, summer $31.14, winter, $35.86; number of pupils registered, summer, 25,567, winter, 28,364; average attendance, summer, 20,048, winter, 22,444; total expenditures for school purposes, $529,054.08; State tax on each, $1; for public schools, five cents; amount appropriated by the State for Normal instruction, $1,500.

Since the publication of the twenty-fifth Annual Report, a State Board of Education has been established. Its first report is now issued. The work done has been mostly preparatory, but is sufficient to indicate the usefulness of the Board.

MICHIGAN.—In September, 1870, the Annual School Meeting of White Pigeon, voted $15,000 to build a new school-house. At a subsequent special meeting held in December last, a motion prevailed rescinding the vote of the annual meeting, and also a vote that the sum assessed to be raised on the tax-roll of 1870 should be refunded to the persons against whom it had been assessed. Suit was then brought by a tax-payer for the amount of the tax assessed against him, the question involved being whether the district had a lawful right to vote to refund a tax after the same had been spread upon the tax-roll. The opinions of the Attorney-General and of the Superintendent of Public Instruction are both adverse to the claim of the plaintiff. In deciding a case sent up from Charlevoix county, the Superintendent holds that a district has legal power to vote a tax of $1,000 for a log school-house, under the amendments of 1867; but adds: "A log school-house seemed to be a kind of necessary evil, and under the circumstances the Legislature were induced to make the change. I should not encourage their erection."

IDAHO TERRITORY.—The Second Biennial Report of the Superintendent, D. Cram, for the years 1869 and 1870, shows the whole number of children in the different counties where public schools have been organized to be 888, of whom only 427 have attended school. The total expenses were $9,208, of which $7,912 were paid to teachers. Public sentiment is modifying in favor of a better system for the management of the public schools. Much has been accomplished during the past two years, but there is still room for improvement. The Superintendent is laboring earnestly in behalf of reform, and will doubtless present a better statement in his next Report.

BATTLE CREEK, MICH.—The working of the schools during the past year, can be understood by examination of

the following figures: number of different pupils enrolled, 1,510; average number belonging, 986; average daily attendance, 933; per cent. of attendance, 95. The central school building lately erected is probably the most elegant, convenient and completely appointed school building in the State.

ST. LOUIS, MO.—The Sixteenth Annual Report of the St. Louis schools shows, that the total number of teachers is 466; number of pupils, 26,811; total expenses, $634,122, of which $313,407 were for teachers' salaries; number of school-houses, 48, of which 38 are owned by the Board of Education; total value of school property, $1,730,146.

POTTSVILLE, PENN.—The school statistics as prepared by the Superintendent, exhibit the following facts:

1. That of 4,427 children in the borough between the ages of 6 and 21, 2,214, or exactly one more than one half, are out of school. 2. That of 2,080 children between the ages of 7 and 13, 401, or nearly one-fifth, are out of school. 3. That 336 males and 530 females above the age of 12 years, out of a population of 12,381, cannot read and write.

These facts point out, in the most forcible manner, a new field for educational effort. They show that multitudes of children in this flourishing town, in the midst of school-houses and churches, are growing up in ignorance, and that many persons are attempting to discharge the duties of citizens who know little about them. It is probable that in many other places, a similar state of affairs exists.

QUEBEC.—The Report of the Minister of Public Instruction for the year 1869 and part of 1870, has been received. The total number of institutions of all kinds, including academies, colleges, etc., is 3,901; number of pupils, 213,653; number of teachers, male, 1,096, females, 3,896; number of public libraries, 186; number of volumes, 93,519. The general statistics show an increase over the preceding year of 1,660 in the number of pupils, and of $102,038 in school contributions. The total amount levied for school purposes was $894,857.

ICELAND.—The educational condition of Iceland is

somewhat anomalous. It would be difficult to find on the island a boy or girl of ten years of age, who is not able to read well: yet, for the 70,000 inhabitants of Iceland, there are only two primary schools and one high school. Nevertheless, primary education is in a manner compulsory, marriage being prohibited unless the bride is able to read. This law, however, seldom or never needs to be enforced, for the good reason that there are no delinquents. As a rule mothers teach their children to read as early as their third or fourth year. The primary rules of arithmetic are almost as generally known as letters. Nearly all the men, and the majority of the women, are also able to write. The thirst for knowledge for its own sake is universal, reading and study forming the chief recreation of the people during the long winter evenings: but there is a serious lack of the practical in the studies pursued. History, genealogies, theology, and even philology is studied by the commonest peasants, while chemistry and the other practical sciences are all but unknown. The result is their learning does not raise them in the least above the rude and primitive style of living inherited from the earliest ages.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

THERE seems to be a growing demand for "Short Courses." We were recently informed by a teacher in a school of some celebrity that they contrived to despatch both Astronomy and Physiology by giving a half term, or some six or seven weeks, to each! If it is possible to give but a single term to Astronomy, the work named below[1] will be found a good one; though we should advise extending the time and taking up a fuller treatise, as, for instance, the same author's "New Manual," issued in 1867, of which the present work is in large part an abridgement. There are problems for both globes, and the diagrams and illustrations are well chosen. A classical scholar might ob-

1 A SHORT COURSE IN ASTRONOMY and the Use of the Globes. By Henry Kiddle, A.M. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., 1871. 16mo., 190 pp.

ject to deriving *Crater* from the *Latin*, or the latter syllable of *spheroid* from the "Greek *oid*, like," as Mr. Kiddle does in his Index of Astronomical Terms. Mechanically, the book is a credit to its publishers.

We have examined Norton's *Natural Philosophy*[2] with some care, and are prepared to say that we should choose it as a text-book for high schools and academies in preference to any other American treatise with which we are acquainted. It is comprehensive, well arranged, abundantly illustrated, and fully up to the present state of the sciences with which it deals. Fourteen pages of practical problems in mechanics are added, and reference to all matters in the volume is made easy by a full index. Teachers of Physics will find the volume of large service to them, even if it should be found to be too extended for use in their classes. It cannot be dispatched in "fourteen weeks," but to our mind this is very far from being an objection to it.

Mr. Leighton's *Greek Lessons*[3] is designed to accompany Goodwin's Greek Grammar, of which we had something to say in our March number. The Reader, by Prof. Goodwin, will be issued in ample time for use in the Fall Term. This series is destined to be extensively adopted. It must commend itself to all who are not wedded to the old methods and manuals. It makes us sigh to think that our youth was trained in Greek according to Sophocles, and not according to Goodwin. How much Goodwin might have saved us, and done for us, if he had only made his Grammar twenty years earlier!

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published a large, handsome, profusely illustrated volume entitled "History of Frederick the Second, called Frederick the Great," by John S. C. Abbott. It is in large readable type, and will prove a good accession to the school library.——"Reindeer, Dogs and Snow-Shoes; a journal of Siberian travel and explorations made in the years 1865, 1866, and 1867," by

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2 THE ELEMENTS OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. By Sidney A. Norton, A.M. *Three hundred and fifty illustrations.* Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. 12mo., pp. 468.

3 GREEK LESSONS adapted to Goodwin's Greek Grammar, and intended as an Introduction to his Greek Reader. By R. F. Leighton, A.M., Master of the Melrose High School. Boston: Ginn Brothers, 1871.

Richard J. Bush, late of the Russo-American Telegraph Expedition. It has many illustrations.——"The Domestic Life of Thomas Jefferson," compiled from family letters and reminiscences, by his great-granddaughter, Sarah N. Randolph.——"The Student's Elements of Geology," by Sir Charles Lyell, Bart., F.R.S. The book has some six hundred illustrations.——"A Latin Grammar for Beginners," by William Henry Waddell, of the University of Georgia. ——"Little Sunshine's Holiday; a picture from life," by the author of "John Halifax, Gentleman." In this connection the publishers announce that they at short intervals, by the same author, will publish a series of books specially prepared for girls. These volumes will be well illustrated, and will be admirably suited for school presents.

MESSRS. HOLT & WILLIAMS have published the "Oral Method with German," by Jean Gustave Keetels.——Also a second edition, revised, of No. II. of the "Student's Collection of Classic French Plays, Athalie, a tragedy by J. Racine." It is edited, with a complete Commentary for the use of Students, by Ed. S. Joynes.

WOOLWORTH, AINSWORTH & CO., "The Federal Government; its officers and their duties," by Ransom & Gillet. 444 pages.

A. S. BARNES & CO., the first of a series of five, entitled "Worman's German Copy-Books," edited by H. E. Hayes. This series is designed for the use of pupils of German-American schools, as well as for students of the German language. It is intended to give the former an easy, rapid and progressive method of learning to write, and the latter a graceful and flowing style of the current German handwriting.

IVISON, BLAKEMAN, TAYLOR & CO., "A Condensed School History of the United States, constructed for definite results in recitation, and containing a new method of topical reviews," by William Swinton. The book is well supplied with maps and illustrations; it is a model as to typography, and is just the right size for a school text-book on this subject. The fame of the author renders comment on the matter unnecessary.

MISCELLANEA.

PROF. WM. S. TYLER is now preparing a full and careful history of Amherst College, beginning with the first project for the establishment of a college in Hampshire County, with sketches of its founders, trustees, and teachers.

MR. TRÜBNER has inserted in the *Literary Record* a very curious list of the school reports of the various States of the Union, with a list of educational periodicals.

A SECOND series of *Short Studies on Great Subjects*, by James Anthony Froude, the historian, has just appeared in London.

FROUDE says, "Thought is but a poor business compared to action."

WHILE ten men watch for chances, one man makes chances; while ten men wait for something to turn up, one turns something up; so while ten fail, one succeeds and is called a man of luck, the favorite of fortune. There is no luck like pluck, and fortune most favors those who are most indifferent to fortune.

IT is said that Choate had an astonishing command of language, and his brain teemed with a wealth of diction truly marvelous. When Judge Shaw first heard that there was a fresh edition of Worcester's Dictionary, containing 2,500 new words, he exclaimed, "For Heaven's sake, don't let Choate get hold of it!"

A CANDIDATE for the position of school teacher in Alabama recently replied to a question by one of the examiners, "Do you think the world is round or flat?" by saying, "Well, some people think one way and some another; and I'll teach round or flat, just as the parents please."

A CONNECTICUT school teacher who wanted to make an impression on two of his boys who had been fighting, proposed that they should be tried by a jury of their fellows. The proposition was accepted, and the charges proved, but the pedagogue, who had constituted himself judge, was a little taken back, when the jury rendered a verdict of "not guilty," without leaving their seats.

A VERY skillful and successful teacher of children is wont to express her indebtedness for much of her success to the following rules, which were first put into this shape by Jacob Abbot:

"When you consent, consent cordially." "When you refuse, refuse finally." "When you punish, punish good naturedly." "Commend often." "Never scold."

Some bulky books contain less practical value than these short sentences.

OUR own day has witnessed the first exact measurement of the distance of the nearest fixed star, which is twenty-one millions of millions of miles. A learned calculator has shown, that in the space around our solar system there is room in one dimension, or one straight line, for twelve thousand solar systems; in two dimensions, or in one plane, there is room for one hundred and thirty millions of solar systems, and in an actual sidereal space of three dimensions there is room for one and a half million millions of solar systems the size of our own. Such are the *blanks* in the scheme; how fearful the thought of such physical immensity!—*Dr. Alexander.*

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL GUIDE.

Leipzig, June, 1871.

TO THE PUBLIC.—The *International Educational Guide* is issued in Leipzig at the International Educational Agency, established by the undersigned, and will be published in the AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, with the intention of serving as mediator between America and Germany in all educational matters. Parents or guardians wishing to procure suitable places in Germany for the education of their children or wards; young ladies or gentlemen who wish to study music, painting, etc., etc., at Conservatory or Art School, or intend to frequent University, Military Academy, Polytechnic, Mining or Mercantile Institutes for the study of, and education in, these various branches of science and knowledge, may procure all necessary information on application to the undersigned. Having spent twenty years in America as a teacher, he has become sufficiently acquainted with the wants and needs and peculiarities of American pupils, and can therefore the better advise them how and where to acquire the wished-for instruction and education.

The undersigned will also assist such as can not or will not come to Germany to be instructed and educated here, by procuring for them suitable German teachers. It is also one of the main objects of the International Educational Agency to notice in the "Guide" all Educational Apparatus prepared in Germany, of which it would be deemed advisable to be introduced in America. Reports of interesting progress in School and Educational matters will be given as far as space will permit, and any and everything be done to benefit America by what occurs in Germany within the vast sphere of instruction and education worthy to be known beyond the boundaries of Fatherland.

That those to whose benefit the undersigned intends particularly to devote his experience and energies, will assist in carrying out the plans of his establishment, is his modest, but ardent wish.

EDWARD WIEBE.

Leipzig, June, 1871. *Late of Springfield, Mass.*

☞ TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN. ☜

About six months ago the *Springfield Republican* contained a card stating that the undersigned intended to go to Germany, and to take with him a number of young ladies to superintend there their studies in music, languages, etc., etc. In answer to this advertisement, several dozens of applications were received, the largest number of which contained the most ridiculous questions, all however showing that there are in America a great number of individuals and families desirous of availing themselves of the facilities offered in Germany for instruction and education, if they only knew how to do it. How this may and should be done we will endeavor to show.

The undersigned started from New York the 20th of May, with a party of ten persons and one child, on board the Bremen steamer *Main*, reached Bremerhafen after a very prosperous voyage—the 1st of June—and proceeded from thence to Leipzig, where three ladies and one gentleman of his party are now pupils of the conservatory of music, and two other ladies studying languages under his direction.

Having promised all those desirous to go to Germany for similar purposes to inform them how to proceed, I begin to redeem my promise in communicating the following, and shall continue to do so, at present once every month:

1. Let not your resolution to go to Germany for the purpose of studying be the result of a few days' consideration. To leave your native country, to give up all the comfort that home affords, to separate from your kindred, friends and acquaintances, to venture out upon the mighty deep, and if you, fortunately, reach the foreign shore, to live among entire strangers, whose language sounds cold to you, whose manners and customs are not your own—all these are matters well to be considered and carefully to be weighed.

2. But if you have, after mature consideration, made up your mind, and are convinced that the change must be made, then let nothing induce you to waver; go into it with all your heart, and care not what may occur to discourage you. Brave all the difficulties which you have to overcome: your object is a noble one, and your reward will be adequate.

3. In order to reap the benefits from your instruction in Germany, you should be familiar with the German language. To acquire it there are two ways. If you study German in America, you will need more time and money to become sufficiently versed in it than if you study it in Germany. You will have to pay $1.00 a lesson in German to an able American teacher, and it will take you one year if you take two lessons a week. The expense in time and money, then, in America will be one year and $100, not counting your expense for your living. If you take German lessons in Germany, it will take you two months to take fifty lessons, and this will cost you twenty-five thalers for the lessons, and about fifty thalers for board—together, about $60.00. During this time you will become able to understand and speak as much as is necessary to enter any educational institution.

4. In regard to taking passage for Europe, avail yourself of either a Bremen or Hamburg steamer. Secure a berth in first cabin upper saloon if you are a lady, or, if a gentleman, and *you are obliged to take one in the lower saloon*, never go into a stateroom where *six* persons are crowded into it. Sanitary authorities in America as well as in Europe should prevent the greedy owners of these magnificent steamers from crowding together in a space of about 480 cubic feet six full-grown persons, who are expected to live on air poisoned with all the unavoidable bad odors produced by the effects of sea-sickness. This is really outrageous, and I repeat, therefore, under no circumstances, if you can help it, take passage in the lower saloon.

5. After arrival in Bremerhafen you are conveyed to Bremen by rail free. If you stay over night in Bremen, go to the Hotel du Nord, where you will find everything most satisfactory.

6. If you land at Hamburg, you will find the same at the Alster Hotel.

7. The expense from Bremen or Hamburg to Leipzig is about ten thalers in second-class railroad cars, of which you always may avail yourself, as they afford all necessary convenience.

8. In regard to clothing, etc., to be taken to Germany, you will do well to be careful. Every article of apparel is much less expensive here than in America, except perhaps boots and shoes. Do not burden your trunk with superfluities, for in traveling on railroads you have to pay extra for every pound over fifty which you carry with you.

9. At Bremen and Harburg you have to open your trunks and valises for examination by the "*Zoll officianten*." If you carry anything with you subject to paying duty, you will be obliged to settle this matter here. The zoll officianten are, as a general thing, very polite here, and the whole performance is much less annoying than that to which strangers are subjected on their arrival in America.

10. For the payment of "*Uberfracht*" (whatever your trunk may weigh over 50 lbs.) you receive a paper which you have to present wherever you wish to reclaim your luggage. It serves instead of a check on American railroads.

11. In order not to be obliged to stay at a hotel in Leipzig, you will do well to notify the undersigned a month before your arrival in Leipzig, and to mention the steamer in which you have taken passage. Arriving in Leipzig you will then ask some one at the depot to show you to the Hotel de Rome. Leave your trunk at the depot, hand your check to the "*Portier*" at the room to your left entering the Hotel de Rome, and ask this gentleman to send for the undersigned, and he will arrange everything necessary for you to accomplish the object for which you went abroad. The advantage of this arrangement must be evident. Heretofore Americans were obliged to grope their way through in the dark to find boarding-places, to make arrangements with the Directors and Professors of the Conservatory or other educational institutions. The ladies who came with the undersigned enjoyed for the first time the assistance of a mediator between them and the strangers with whom they were obliged to negotiate. English people arriving here are assisted by an English clergyman. Americans may avail themselves in future of the services of the undersigned, if they are disposed to do so.

12. If you come to Leipzig for the purpose of entering the Conservatory, you will be required to know in musical theory as much as is found in a little work published by the undersigned, and entitled, "*Studies in Musical Theory*," for sale at FAY, HOADLY & Co.'s, Springfield, Mass.—price 40 cents.

13. In the next numbers of this Monthly important points in the Prospectus of the Conservatory of Music and other institutions, will be given, together with other instruction unavoidably necessary for those who contemplate pursuing their studies in Germany; they will therefore do well to secure an early copy, as all communications from the International Educational Agency in Leipzig will be of great importance to them.

Direct all communications to

EDWARD WIEBE,
2 Dorrienstr, Leipzig.

LEIPZIG, *July*, 1871.

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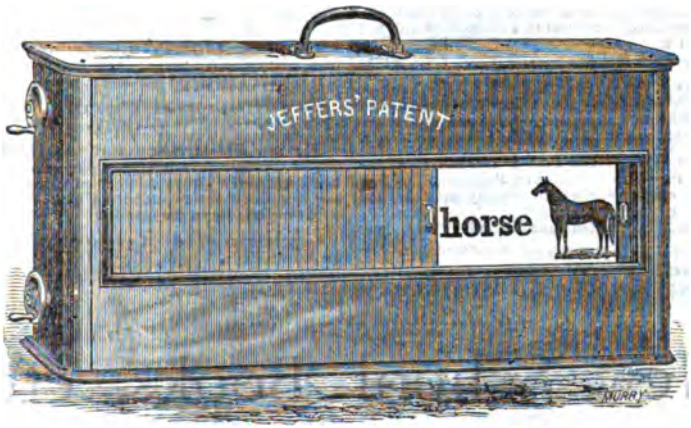

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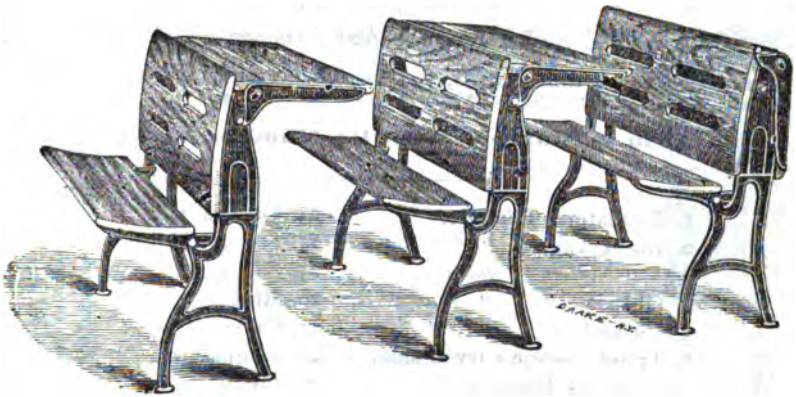

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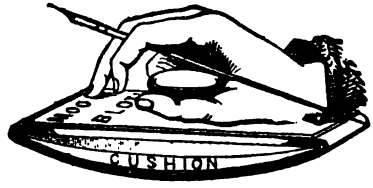

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October, 1871.

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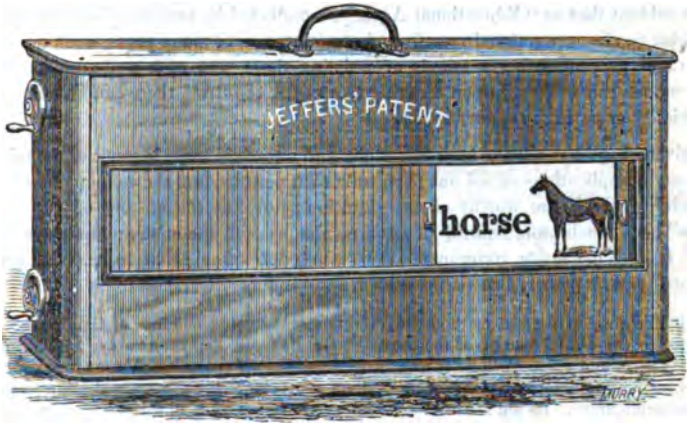

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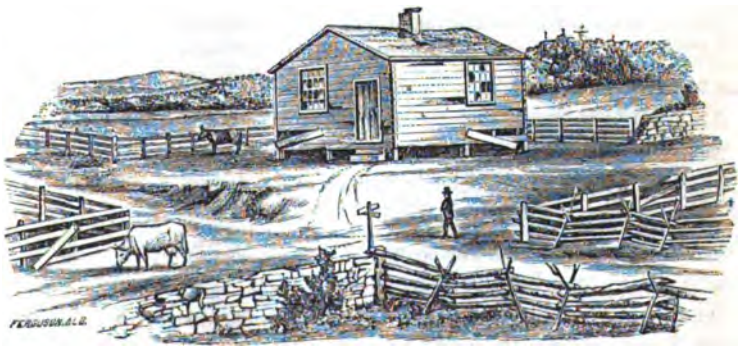
*THE OLD SCHOOL-HOUSE AND THE NEW; OR, FIFTY YEARS AGO AND TO-DAY.**

WE are a progressive people, there is no doubt of that; in the race for improvement, in physical and intellectual matters, however it may be in morals, we are not likely to be laggards. Yet there are those even in our com-



THE OLD-FASHIONED SCHOOL HOUSE.

munities, who have invested the past with such a halo of beauty, that they are constantly inquiring, "What is the cause that the former days were better than these?" To

* By Dr. Brockett, in Appletons' "Educational Record." The illustrations are from Prof. Johonnot's new book, "Our School Houses."

them all the circumstances of their childhood are irradiated with an unreal light, and that which was hard and homely and rough, is softened and rounded by the lapse of years, till it seems to them as beautiful as an ancient and ivy-clad ruin, in the soft light of the harvest moon.

It would be perhaps a hopeless task to convince such persons as these that there had been any real progress in educational matters in this country within the past fifty years; but it is not to them we appeal, but to those who believe in progress, advancement, and growth; who look forward to see the rough and unhewn block of marble of to-day, become to-morrow "a thing of beauty, and a joy forever."

Let us begin, then, with the District School-house as it was. The writer's memory does not go back quite fifty years, and his childhood was passed in a portion of New England remarkable for its intelligence and culture; he will, therefore, call first other witnesses to the stand, and afterward give his own recollections.

The late Rev. Heman Humphrey, D.D., for some years President of Amherst College, thus describes the district school-houses in which he taught in the early part of the present century: "Some of the school-houses were better than others, but none of them were convenient or even comfortable. They were rather *juvenile penitentiaries* than attractive accommodations for study. They were too small and low from the ceiling to the floor, and the calculation of the builders seemed to have been, to decide into how small a space the children could be crowded, from the fireplace till the room was well packed. Not unfrequently sixty or seventy scholars were daily shut up six hours, where there was hardly room for thirty. The school-houses were square, with a very narrow entry, and a large fireplace on the side near the door. There were no stoves then. The school-houses were generally roughly clapboarded, but never painted. They had writing desks, or rather long boards for writing, on two or three sides next to the wall. The benches were all loose; some of them boards, with slabs from the saw-mill, standing on four legs, two at each end. Some were a little lower than the rest, but many of the smaller children had to sit all day with their legs

dangling between the bench and the floor. Poor little things nodding and trying to keep their balance on the slabs, without any backs to lean against, how I pity them to this day! In the coldest weather it was hard to tell which was the most difficult, to keep from roasting or freezing. For those nearest to the fire it was sweltering hot, while the ink was freezing in the pens on the backside of the room. 'Master, I am too hot'—'Master, may I go to the fire?' Such were the constant appeals to the teacher.

"All the school-houses that I remember, stood close by the traveled road without any play-grounds or enclosures whatever. If there were any shade-trees planted, or left of spontaneous growth, I have forgotten them. And in most cases there were no outside accommodations, even the most necessary. For the most part, the winter schools were miserably supplied with wood. Most of what we used was standing in the forests when the school began, and was cut and brought sled-length by the farmers in proportion to the number of scholars which they sent. In many cases the understanding was that the larger boys must cut the wood as it was wanted. It always lay in the snow, and sometimes the boys were sent to dig it out in school-time, and bring it in, all wet and green as it was, to keep us from freezing. That was the fuel to make fire with in the morning, when the thermometer was below zero; and how the little children cried with the cold, when they came almost frozen and found no fire burning; nothing but one or two boys blowing and keeping themselves warm as well as they could by exercise, in trying to kindle it!"

Very similar in its purport is the account given by the late S. G. Goodrich (Peter Parley) of the schools and school-houses of his boyhood: "The school-house itself consisted of rough, unpainted clapboards, upon a wooden frame. It was plastered within, and contained two apartments—a little entry taken out of the corner for a wardrobe, and the school-room proper. The chimney was of stone and pointed with mortar, which, by the way, had been dug into a honeycomb by uneasy and enterprising pen-knives. The fire-place was six feet wide and four feet deep. The flue was so ample and so perpendicular, that the rain, sleet and snow fell di-

rectly to the hearth. In winter the battle for life, with green fizzling fuel, which was brought in sled-lengths, and cut up by the scholars, was a stern one. Not unfrequently, the wood gushing with sap as it was, chanced to be out, and as there was no living without fire, the thermometer being ten or twenty degrees below zero, the school was dismissed, whereat all the scholars rejoiced aloud, not having the fear of the school-master before their eyes. . . . . The school being organized, we were all seated upon benches, made of what were called *slabs*—that is, boards having the exterior or rounded part of the log on one side: as they were useless for other purposes, these were converted into school-benches, the rounded part down. They had each four supports, consisting of straddling wooden legs, set into auger holes. Our own legs swayed in the air, for they were too short to touch the floor.

In the middle States the condition of both schools and school-houses was, in general, very much worse than in New England. The school-house and school at Birmingham, Chester County, Pennsylvania, described by the late Dr. William Darlington, as having existed about the beginning of the present century, was very much above the average, but it seems to have been bad enough. "The business of teaching," says the venerable doctor, "at that day was disdainfully regarded as among the humblest and most unprofitable of callings; and the *teachers*—often low-bred, intemperate adventurers from the old world—were generally about on a *par* with the prevalent estimate of the profession. Whenever a thriftless vagabond was found to be good for nothing else, he would resort to *school-keeping*, and teaching young American ideas how to shoot. . . . . The old *school-house* at Birmingham was a one-story stone building, erected by men who did not understand the subject; and was badly lighted and ventilated. The discipline of that day (adopted from the mother country) was pretty severe. The real *birch* of the botanists not being indigenous in the vicinity of the school, an efficient substitute was found in young apple-tree sprouts, as unruly boys were abundantly able to testify."

Robert Coram of Wilmington, Delaware, characterized

the state of education in that region, at the close of the last century, as follows: "The country schools through most of the United States, whether we consider the buildings, the teachers or the regulations, are in every respect completely despicable, wretched and contemptible. The buildings are in general sorry hovels, neither wind-tight nor water-tight; a few stools serving in the double capacity of benches and desks, and the old leaves of copy-books making a miserable substitute for glass windows. The teachers are generally foreigners, shamefully deficient in every qualification necessary to convey instruction to youth, and not seldom addicted to gross vices."

A Mr. John Davis, an English teacher of superior education, thus describes an Old Field school or academy in Virginia, where he taught in 1801 and 1802: "It is worth the while to describe the academy I occupied on Mr. Ball's plantation. It had one room and a half. It stood on blocks about two feet and a half above the ground, where there was free access to the hogs, the dogs and the poultry. It had no ceiling, nor was the roof lathed or plastered, but covered with shingles. Hence, when it rained, like the nephew of old Elwes, I moved my bed (for I slept in my academy) to the most comfortable corner. It had one window, but no glass nor shutter. In the night to remedy this, the mulatto wench who waited on me, contrived very ingeniously to place a square board against the window with one hand, and fix the rail of a broken down fence against it with the other. In the morning when I returned from breakfasting in the 'great big house' (my scholars being collected) I gave the rail a forcible kick with my foot, and down tumbled the board with an awful roar."

In regard to the school-houses farther South in the early part of this century, Judge Longstreet, late President of the University of Mississippi and other Southern Universities, gives us a description in his "Georgia Scenes," which is said to have been drawn from the life: "It was a simple log-pen about twenty feet square, with a door-way cut out of the logs, to which was fitted a rude door made of clapboard, and swung on wooden hinges. The roof was covered with clapboards also, and retained in their places by heavy

logs placed on them. The chimney was built of logs, diminishing in size from the ground to the top, and overspread inside and out with red-clay mortar. The classic hut (to which the teacher would allow no one to give any other name than "the academy") occupied a lovely spot overshadowed by majestic hickories, towering poplars, and strong-armed oaks. The little plain on which it stood was terminated, at the distance of about fifty paces from its door, by the brow of a hill, which descended rather abruptly to a noble spring that gushed joyously forth among the roots of a stately beech at its foot." The Judge thus describes its internal furnishing: "A large three-inch plank (if it deserve that name, for it was wrought from the half of a tree's trunk entirely with the axe), attached to the logs by means of wooden pins, served the whole school for a writing-desk. At a convenient distance below it and on a line with it, stretched a smooth log resting upon the logs of the house, which answered for the writers' seat."

Log School House.

The writer's own recollections of the public school date back to but little more than forty years, but they corroborate much of what has been already described. The Pound Hill School-house was on the summit of a hill a hundred feet or more in height, in the centre of a populous and flourishing village. The hill had three churches on it, all within a few rods of the school-house, and a few years later a good academy built of brick, and endowed partially by a wealthy citizen. But the district school-house was the only school which the greater part of the children of the village ever attended. It stood upon a little knoll, close to the street, with no enclosure, no trees, and no protection from the gaze of the passers-by. It was a square frame building of one story, about twenty by twenty-five feet, covered with

clapboards (except where these had been torn off to aid in kindling the fire) and shingled. The clapboards had at some remote period been painted red, but this now alternated with weather-stains, and gave the building a sort of brindled appearance. Ascending two or three stone steps to the weather-beaten door, the entry, as it was called, presented itself, a square closet where the boys and girls hung hats, bonnets, and dinner-pails. The school-room, into which we next passed, was nearly square; it had been lathed and plastered, but the walls were much broken, and some artistic genius had adorned the wall overhead (the room was hardly seven feet high) with wreaths and festoons and comic figures executed in lamp-smoke, so completely that hardly a vestige of white wall remained. The traditional style of writing-desks, a board attached to the wall and running round three sides of the room, was in use here, but the building-committee had kindly provided a shelf below, where our school-books could be stored, when not in use. The seats for the older scholars were of slab, with legs sawed from some sapling about two inches through, and were without backs. The smaller children had similar but lower benches. In the middle of the room was a huge rusty box-stove, which could take in two-foot wood; while on the side unoccupied was the master's chair and a square cross-legged pine table. The teacher's table, the writing-desks, and the benches, bore evidence of the whittling propensities of the boys, and many was the fly-prison and pin-box carved and excavated in the desk-board, while the less expert had cut holes through it, and would amuse themselves with dropping crumbs to the ever-eager and hungry mice which tenanted the school-house. Of apparatus or appliances for aiding in the work of instruction there were none, except the well-seasoned hickory rod, which, during the reign of the male teachers, generally lay on the table, and the long and heavy mahogany ruler, which was the equally dreaded instrument of punishment. Globes and maps had been heard of, but they were far too expensive for a district school; and Morse's old Geography, a thick duodecimo volume, had no atlas accompanying it. Very few of the scholars as yet studied geography, it being generally con-

sidered that reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic, as far as the Rule of Three, were sufficient studies for any boy, unless he was going to college, and sufficient for any girl at any rate. Still, at this time (1828), the Pound Hill School was in advance of most of the schools in the region, for it not only had a geography class, but a small class in Russell's Murray's English Grammar! Not much did the children learn of either, for Russell's little abridgment hardly went beyond the parts of speech, and the Morse's Geography gave nothing but dry details of the countries and cities of the earth, such for instance as its description of Albany, as "a town of three hundred houses, and about three thousand inhabitants, nearly all with their gable-ends to the street!"

Black-boards, or blackened walls to answer the same purpose, had not then been heard of, and there was certainly no royal road to an arithmetical education, though Daboll's Arithmetic, then just introduced, was certainly an advance upon Dilworth, though in some respects inferior to old Pike, which was a great favorite with the older masters. The pupils seldom ventured beyond the Rule of Three, as, indeed, in very many instances, the teachers had not themselves gone farther; but occasionally a teacher was found very fond of mathematical studies, who had gone through the book, and who tempted his most advanced scholars to make equal attainments. The boy or girl who had attained to this lofty eminence of learning was, however, at once unfitted for any further attendance on the district school, and was looked upon as one of the reserves from whom a future supply of teachers should be drawn. It is but justice to say, however, that if but little was taught in these district schools of forty or fifty years ago, that little was taught very thoroughly, though, perhaps, not always judiciously. The mysteries of English spelling were driven into the heads and memories of the children so carefully that there were fewer poor spellers than there are now. The children did not comprehend the philosophy of spelling, but they were at home in the practice. Reading was carefully but not well taught, because the teachers did not understand the principles of inflection, emphasis, accent, etc.; but penmanship

was, in general, very well taught. Not one teacher in a hundred—perhaps not one in a thousand—understood the connection between writing and drawing, or had ever analyzed the small number of elementary principles which go to make up the form of the perfect letters, but they almost invariably wrote a good, plain, legible hand, and they taught their pupils to do the same.

Twenty years later the Pound Hill School-house stood on the same spot, and only looked more dilapidated and discreditable than it had done in 1828. It had, however, a black-board and some outline maps. To-day there stands on that hill, in a neat enclosure, some distance from the road, and with stately trees around it, a public school, with its graded departments, its five or six teachers, and its ample appliances for education. As you enter (and there are distinct entrances for boys and girls), you find ample closets for hats, coats, cloaks, and overshoes, each pupil having his or her own number, and the hooks themselves forming a register of the presence or absence of the pupil. The school-rooms are spacious and high, well and equably warmed and ventilated, well lighted, and the glare of the sun prevented by inner shutters. The desks and seats, each intended for two pupils, are of the New American Style, Munger's Patent, with Allen's Folding Opera Seats, and leave nothing to be desired, while the passage-ways between each two rows render access perfectly easy. On a raised platform at one end of each room is the teacher's desk, a model of beauty and good taste, with its book-rack well supplied with standard reference-books, dictionaries, gazetteers, compendiums of dates, history, literature, and mathematical science. Near the teacher's desk and on a line with it is a sweet-toned cabinet organ, which is used to accompany the musical and devotional exercises of the school, and exerts a wonderful power in calming undue excitement and controlling the tempers of the children. On one side of the room is a zone of wall with its surface slated with the Eureka Liquid Slating, and below it a receptacle for crayons and black-board rubbers, while one or two portable Eureka wall slates show the extent to which the black-board is used as a means of instruction. On the other side the walls are

covered with Mitchell's maps, and Adjustable stands at different points contain other maps and charts ready to be unrolled for recitation. A programme clock, by a single stroke, calls each class in turn to recitation. On the platform, terrestrial and celestial globes of the latest style, and a fine orrery, serve for aids to geographical and astronomical instruction, and what is lacking in these is made up in the charts and diagrams found in the closets. A good library, from which all the pupils may draw for home reading, occupies cases at the opposite extremity of the room. Penmanship is taught by Ellsworth's method, and each scholar has an ink-well conveniently arranged to prevent the spilling of ink in the desk; steel pens of the best quality, and copy-books of acknowledged excellence, are provided. In the closets are small cabinets of geology and mineralogy, and an herbarium, all mostly collected by the children. This room is the study-room of the grammar-school. Let us walk into the primary and intermediate departments. The little people are not now as they were in the public schools of forty or fifty years ago: in the intervals of their being called up to say their letters, as the teacher pointed them out from a page of the spelling-book, sleeping on the rude benches, tying and untying their shoe-strings, or in the lack or failure of any of their little schemes of mischief, traveling to and from the water-pail, in childish restlessness. On the contrary, they are very busy; one little urchin is puzzling himself with putting his letter-blocks together; another is deciphering the large letters in his primer which spell the name of his favorite dog; others are occupied with comparing the color, the size, or the form of different blocks and balls; others a little farther on are performing the elementary problems of arithmetic by counting the number of apples, nuts, or balls in two or more piles, or on the rods of the numeral frame; others still are copying, a little awkwardly perhaps, forms, figures, letters, and numerals, and thus taking primary lessons in drawing and penmanship. The exercises of the Kindergarten, object-lessons, and the eager development of the natural powers of touch, sight, hearing, taste, and smell, occupy the minds of the youngest. A Primary Geography in the hands of another, despite

POUND HILL SCHOOL HOUSE.

its dog's-eared condition, gives evidence that some of the earlier and simpler geographical problems of that volume have attracted his attention. The teacher oversees and directs all, so changing their employments and the current of their thoughts that there is no weariness or lassitude, and the little ones enjoy their school. Among the intermediates it is composition day; their book-slates are all in requisition and a great deal of hard thinking is being done, not only in the effort to lick into shape the somewhat intractable ideas, and present them to the teacher in an acceptable form, but to overcome the tendency to bad spelling. This is, perhaps, the hardest trial of the public school to many of the children, even to some of those whose pens will move glibly enough a few years hence. Dictation exercises from Quackenbos's Composition, and declamations, close the day.

This is a public school in the country at the present day. Our public schools in the cities, beginning from a considerably higher stand-point, and in many respects differently situated, have attained to a still higher degree of development in all the appliances of instruction. School-house architecture is now a recognized science, to which some of the best intellects in the nation are giving their thoughts, and in all particulars, in architectural elegance, in perfect adaptation to the purposes of the schools, in the admirable manner in which they are lighted, warmed, and ventilated, many of our public-school buildings surpass any school-edifices in the world. There are others which, though commodious, do not deserve such high praise; but, while there are yet a few left of the school-houses so abundant fifty years ago, they are the rare exceptions; thanks to Johonnot, who has so ably demonstrated the necessity of good school-houses.

The introduction of suitable school furniture and apparatus into these school-houses has been almost wholly the work of the last forty years, and most of it of the last twenty-five or thirty. Very few public schools in the United States had a black-board before 1830; improved desks and seats, even of a greatly inferior quality to those now in use, do not date much farther back than 1835 or 1836;

globes, orreries, planetariums, outline maps, charts, school libraries, have all come into use since 1840; numeral frames, geometrical figures, letter-blocks, and all the Kindergarten and object-lesson apparatus is of still later date. Last in time, though first in some respects in importance, in our larger city schools, were the rings, wooden dumb-bells, Indian clubs, etc., etc., of the gymnastic and calisthenic exercises. In the free, open-air life of the country these are less absolutely necessary, though they tend even there to a higher and better development of the physical system; but in the city, with its restricted opportunities for healthful exercise, they are indispensable to such physical development as shall give to our youth a "sound mind in a sound body."

This paper is intended for and addressed to teachers, and the writer himself, long a practical teacher, would seek to impress upon them the lesson of the increased responsibility which these great advantages and improvements of the present time impose on them. The teacher of forty or fifty years ago was surrounded by so many physical discomforts that much of his time was necessarily consumed in combating the cold, the heat, the lassitude arising from impure air and imperfect ventilation; while attending to his older classes, the younger, unemployed and listless, were sure to be in mischief; any thorough classification of his scholars was impossible for the want of uniform text-books and parallel advancement among his scholars. He could not illustrate his lessons successfully, and his teaching, even with his best efforts, was much of it thrown away from the inability of his pupils to comprehend it.

The teacher in one of our modern school-houses has few or no physical discomforts to annoy him; his whole thoughts and his undivided attention can be given to the improvement of his pupils; and these being placed in the most favorable circumstances for study, ought to make rapid progress. Whatever may be the topic of instruction, he has now abundant help; if it is geography, the outline and wall maps, the globes, the gazetteer, or the cyclopædia, and the admirable school geographies and atlases render instruction in it infinitely easier than it was forty years ago, and require from him a greatly higher standard of instruction; if it is

arithmetic, not only has he better text-books and those adapted to all capacities, but his black-boards, his numeral frames, his mathematical charts and tables, and his geometrical figures, make progress far less difficult than it was forty years ago. In the same way is he helped in the studies of the primary department, and in history, astronomy, natural philosophy, and the physical sciences. He ought, then, to teach far more and more successfully in the same time, than his predecessors of forty or fifty years ago could possibly have done. Whether the quality of the teaching has kept pace with the improvements in school-houses and school appliances is a question worthy of serious consideration.

ONE OF RUSKIN'S BEST.

ALL rivers, small or large, agree in one characteristic: they like to lean a little on one side; they can not bear to have their channels deepest in the middle, but will always, if they can, have one bank to sun themselves upon, and another to get cool under; one shingly shore to play over, where they may be shallow, and shore-foolish, and child-like; another steep, under which they can pause, and purify themselves, and get their strength of waves fully together for due occasion.

Rivers in this way are just like wise men, who keep one side of their life for play and another for work, and can be brilliant, and chattering, and transparent, when they are at ease, and yet take deep counsel on the other side when they set themselves to their main purpose. And rivers are just in this divided, also, like wicked and good men: the good rivers have serviceable, deep places all along their banks, that ships can sail in; but the wicked rivers go scooping irregularly under their banks, until they get full of struggling eddies, which no boat can row over without being twisted against the rocks, and pools like wells, which no one can get out of but the water-kelpie that lives at the bottom. But, wicked or good, the rivers all agree in having two kinds of sides.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?—VI.

PHYSICS.

JOINED with mathematics, Physics has given us the steam-engine, which does the work of millions of laborers. That section of physics which deals with the laws of heat, has taught us how to economise fuel in our various industries; how to increase the produce of our smelting furnaces by substituting the hot for the cold blast; how to ventilate our mines; how to prevent explosions by using the safety-lamp; and, through the thermometer, how to regulate innumerable processes. That division which has the phenomena of light for its subject, gives eyes to the old and the myopic; aids through the microscope in detecting diseases and adulterations; and by improved lighthouses prevents shipwrecks. Researches in electricity and magnetism have saved incalculable life and property by the compass; have subserved sundry arts by the electrotype; and now, in the telegraph, have supplied us with the agency by which for the future all mercantile transactions will be regulated, political intercourse carried on, and national quarrels often avoided. While in the details of indoor life, from the improved kitchen-range up to the stereoscope on the drawing-room table, the applications of advanced physics underlie our comforts and gratifications.

Still more numerous are the bearings of Chemistry on those activities by which men obtain the means of living. The bleacher, the dyer, the calico-printer, are severally occupied in processes that are well or ill done according as they do or do not conform to chemical laws. The economical reduction from their ores of copper, tin, zinc, lead, silver, iron, are in a great measure questions of chemistry. Sugar-refining, gas-making, soap-boiling, gunpowder manufacture, are operations all partly chemical; as are also those by which are produced glass and porcelain. Whether the distiller's work stops at the alcoholic fermentation or passes into the acetous, is a chemical question on which hangs his profit or loss; and the brewer, if his business is sufficiently

large, finds it pays to keep a chemist on his premises. Glance through a work on technology, and it becomes at once apparent that there is now scarcely any process in the arts or manufactures over some part of which chemistry does not preside. And then, lastly, we come to the fact that in these times, agriculture, to be profitably carried on, must have like guidance. The analysis of manures and soils; their adaptations to each other; the use of gypsum or other substance for fixing ammonia; the utilization of coprolites; the production of artificial manures—all these are boons of chemistry which it behooves the farmer to acquaint himself with. Be it in the lucifer match, or in disinfected sewage, or in photographs—in bread made without fermentation, or perfumes extracted from refuse, we may perceive that chemistry affects all our industries; and that, by consequence, knowledge of it concerns every one who is directly or indirectly connected with our industries.

And then the science of life—Biology: does not this, too, bear fundamentally upon these processes of indirect self-preservation? With what we ordinarily call manufactures, it has, indeed, little connection; but with the all-essential manufacture—that of food—it is inseparably connected. As agriculture must conform its methods to the phenomena of vegetable and animal life, it follows necessarily that the science of these phenomena is the rational basis of agriculture. Various biological truths have indeed been empirically established and acted upon by farmers while yet there has been no conception of them as science: such as that particular manures are suited to particular plants; that crops of certain kinds unfit the soil for other crops; that horses cannot do good work on poor food; that such and such diseases of cattle and sheep are caused by such and such conditions. These, and the every-day knowledge which the agriculturist gains by experience respecting the right management of plants and animals, constitute his stock of biological facts; on the largeness of which greatly depends his success. And as these biological facts, scanty, indefinite, rudimentary, though they are, aid him so essentially; judge what must be the value to him of such facts when they become positive, definite, and exhaustive. Indeed, even now

we may see the benefits that rational biology is conferring on him. The truth that the production of animal heat implies waste of substance, and that, therefore, preventing loss of heat prevents the need for extra food—a purely theoretical conclusion—now guides the fattening of cattle: it is found that by keeping cattle warm, fodder is saved. Similarly with respect to variety of food. The experiments of physiologists have shown that not only is change of diet beneficial, but that digestion is facilitated by a mixture of ingredients in each meal: both which truths are now influencing cattle-feeding. The discovery that a disorder known as "the staggers," of which many thousands of sheep have died annually, is caused by an entozoon which presses on the brain; and that if the creature is extracted through the softened place in the skull which marks its position, the sheep usually recovers; is another debt which agriculture owes to biology. When we observe the marked contrast between our farming and farming in some parts of Europe, and remember that this contrast is mainly due to the far greater influence science has had upon farming here than there; and when we see how, daily, competition is making the adoption of scientific methods more general and necessary; we shall rightly infer that very soon, agricultural success will be impossible without a competent knowledge of animal and vegetable physiology.—*Herbert Spencer.*

A GENTLEMAN.—The subjoined paragraph, from an exchange, is a valuable little volume in itself:

"No man is a gentleman, who, without provocation would treat with incivility the humblest of his species. It is vulgarity which no accomplishment of dress or address can ever atone. The man who desires to make every one around him happy, and whose greatest solicitude is never to give offense to any one, is a gentleman by nature and species, though he may never have worn a suit of broadcloth, nor ever heard of a lexicon. There are men in every throb of whose hearts there is solicitude for the welfare of mankind."

A STROLL WITH "ARIEL" THROUGH PARADISE;

OR, THROUGH THE SCHOOLS SPECIALLY DESIGNED FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF THE YOUNG LADIES OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK,

WHICH, in different language, expresses the same idea. But, say you, how can we get in? Easily. The poet Milton tells us, that, although the infernal regions were enclosed with brazen, iron and adamantine gates, all one had to do in order to effect an entrance into Paradise, was to leap over a wall.

Now, gentle reader, I do not desire that you should leap over a wall, and far be it from me to suggest a comparison between yourself and the "gentleman in black below," who performed that feat in Milton's famous Epic. To me both time and space are immaterial. If the door be closed, I pass in at the window; should that be shut, I glide through the key-hole of the door. If you have faith, I will take you also with me, for I am "The Dainty Ariel" at your service.

> "All hail, great master; grave Sir, hail. I come
> To answer thy best pleasure; be 't to fly,
> To swim, to dive into the fire, to ride
> On the curled clouds: to thy strong bidding task
> Ariel, and all his quality."

Trust me and take my hand. Now, tell me where you are? Yes, you are correct, we are in Grand Avenue, and this is the hall of the rich and elegantly furnished establishment of Mrs. Lattimere. It is early morn, and the pupils are, as you perceive, assembling. You need not fear, we are invisible, they cannot see us. Punctual to the minute, at 9 o'clock, old Mr. Dobbin, professor of grammar and rhetoric, enters, and proceeds up stairs to give a lesson; let us follow him. There are some twenty young ladies present. As his questions pass round, one of them, Carlotta L., very richly dressed, with jewelled fingers, replies to his query listlessly thus: "Please to excuse me to-day, sir;" and Mr. Dobbin appeals to the next. The question is rather difficult, but he obtains a full answer to it from a Cinderella sitting at

the end of the class, who is on the foundation, and is one of the fugle-girls of the establishment. If you appealed to Mrs. L. she would admit that Cinderella is a good girl, but Carlotta L.—so artless, so natural, so easy and so full of life—she is indeed the delight of the school. The reasons for this, to you, singular award, may be found in the play of Timon:

> "What is here?
> Gold, yellow, glittering, precious gold?
> Thus much of this will make black, white; foul, fair;
> Wrong, right; base, noble; coward, valiant."

But old father time will assuredly in this instance bring in his revenges. It needs no "spirit" to tell you, that, in a few years, in all probability, as regards worldly circumstances, these girls will have reversed their positions in society.

Since we came in here, Dr. Wilfred Lutterworth Bridleton has arrived and is now lecturing in the main schoolroom. As you may have noticed the omission of the calling of the roll, allow me to tell you that they are too "recherche" for that low ceremony here, and too cosmopolitic for prayers. But, let us return to the hall, and you will see how delinquents in punctuality are notified of their error. See, that is Mrs. L. herself, and hear her greeting to the three late comers now entering: "Oh, you naughty girls, you don't know what you have missed. We have had the character of the regicide Cromwell finely dissected." Here the historical anatomist himself enters in the person of the Dr. He also expresses his regret that the young ladies were not present in the class. They make their excuses, and one takes the liberty of asking, "What is to be the subject for next Wednesday?" The Dr. replies, "Oh! the continuation of the history of England; I shall take up Charles the Second and defend his character in its moral aspect." The Dr. is right, in the highly fashionable schools it is as well to remember the biblical command to "honor the king;" and also never to forget, that in them Jeffersonian democracy is at a discount.

But you are tired of the fashionable school "par excellence," and may wish to see one of another class. Well, you have only to desire so to do, and your wish is gratified. You

are now in an establishment in which a certain form of religion is a specialty. There are many such of all denominations, Catholic, Episcopal, Presbyterian, Methodist, etc. This, we are in, has an Episcopalian foundation. Mark, it is of the High Church. This is necessary to be mentioned. because between it and the Low Church there is a great gulf fixed. The walls are decorated with illuminated writings; some of the desks are vacant, for it is a fast day, the fast of St. Waltheoff. The principal is notifying the scholars of a lecture that is appointed to be given on the morrow: she says: "I trust, young ladies, you will all be present and give it your serious attention. We have often had lectures by B. A's. and M. A's., and one or two by LL. D's. But this, you will remember, is by Dr. Dooboobie, a D.D. of Oxford University. The subject is, however, scientific. It is "An effort to harmonize modern geology with the Mosaic account of the Creation." It is to be illustrated with views of Paris, taken at the time of the revolution of 1830. This precise period is selected because it presents some of the ancient formations of the earth's surface, and also the more modern strata of the Barricades. I have little need to inform you that the learned Divine will prove, to your entire satisfaction, the harmony existing between geological science and the Holy Scriptures. Probably it would be best for the junior classes to give their attention to the historical features of the lecture, but copious notes on the more abstruse parts of the subject will be expected from the senior departments."

In institutions such as these a higher degree of order is generally found than in mere secular seminaries; the memory is also well exercised, collects and prayers correctly recited being expected weekly, if not daily, from all pupils, which, in this age of education made easy, is a great advantage gained. On the contrary, the power of the principals is often overshadowed by exterior clerical influences, and the professional chairs are often occupied by learned men who are not experienced teachers. These not unfrequently are quite willing to recite the lessons themselves, explaining and commenting on their mysteries and difficulties instead of exercising the faculties of their pupils; a system which

might answer in a college, but is not to be commended in a school.

We will conclude our morning's ramble with a visit to one of another large class of fashionable schools, viz: "A French school." Here we are in the celebrated Institute of Madame La Peyronnet. There is quite a buzz in the school-room as we invisibly enter. An absence of strict discipline may be noted. These institutions are not governed by rules but by tact. Not unfrequently Monsieur is engaged in the school, but he is generally nobody, and Madame is all in all. He is the good friend of the little ones, and intercedes for their little delinquencies with the principal. Although there is a lack of strict order, its place is partially supplied with gentle restraint, affectionately applied. That old whiteheaded gentleman at the desk is Mr. Le More, the writing teacher. He is speaking to one of the children who has brought him a blotted book. "How is this, Nina?" he exclaims; but, before his words are fully uttered, another girl runs to him and says: "If you please, sir, don't take away Nina's good mark, I did it." "Well, Miss, I'll remember it against you." He will do so; when she presents her book for judgment, he will give her one less for the blot, and one more for her candid confession, and so all will go merrily on.

But the distinguishing characteristics of French schools are the many happy evening parties, concerts, etc., which dot the time during which the schools are in session. There is an "abandon" in these "reunions;" a freedom between teachers and pupils which is perfectly delightful. They are not costly but happy meetings. At the conclusion of the year not one of the children is neglected. All are recipients of some special honor; the manner of conferring which is commonly more valuable than the gift. The rule is, none must leave unrewarded, and it is not a bad rule. Those who are not cheerful in their youth rarely attain felicity in their old age.

A word in conclusion, before I bid you adieu. Remember, if, in your day's travel, you have witnessed any defects, that young ladies' schools as they are, are the creations of the will of the fashionable public. In them you will find, in

all cases, a corps of useful, hard working, patient instructors, who make up for many deficiencies. If they are not all that they might be, the reason is, there is no demand for superior schools. No dry goods merchants ever catered more carefully to please their customers, than our fashionable principals adapt themselves to suit the taste of their patrons. If you think differently, and believe you can improve matters, open a school yourself, and sustain your model as long as your means will permit you to do so. You will find that your own funds will have to support it. As regards "extras," every principal knows that the burden of expenses attendant on the working of a fashionable school, is wasted on comparative frivolities, but the public will demands such outlays, and it must be satisfied. About this time of the year it is usual for the daily press, at least that part of it which is not blessed with private school advertisements, to condemn in toto the methods in which young ladies' schools are at present conducted. A better plan would be for it to instruct fashionable Papas and Mammas with regard to their proper parental duties, and teach them to demand, institute, and patronize something better in the line of education than anything you have had the pleasure of viewing during your morning's ramble with ARIEL.

READING.—The foundation of knowledge must be laid by reading. General principles must be had from books, which, however, must be brought to the test of real life. In conversation you never get a system. What is said upon a subject is to be gathered from a hundred people. The parts of a truth a man gets thus are at such a distance from each other, that he never gets a full view.

PRONUNCIATION.—Dr. Blair says, in order to be fully understood, four requisites are necessary. 1. A due degree of loudness of voice. 2. Distinctness. 3. Slowness; and 4. Propriety of pronunciation.

TEACHERS' WAGES IN GERMANY.

WHILE the question, "Shall our public Educators receive greater salaries?" is agitating the public, let me cite an example which has come to my notice in civilized and educated Germany, then ask your own hearts if there may not be within you a little of the spirit which the woman had who asked Sir Walter Scott for five pounds, and receiving it so easily, went away muttering the wish that she had asked for ten.

Some days since, the principal teacher of a school in a village in the Kingdom of Saxony, died of hemorrhage from the lungs. He leaves a wife and seven children, who cannot claim a "pension" (or assistance in money for their support,) because he was employed interimistically only. The poverty in which this family lived was beyond description. When he was nearly dead and the physician was called, and there was no money with which to buy medicine, which might have lengthened life or alleviated his sufferings, the poor dying man exclaimed: "I have nothing in my last hour with which to soothe my pain but a draught of water!"

There was nothing in the house which could be used as a shroud, save but a single sheet, and the coffin had to be paid for by some poor teachers in the neighborhood. The wife of the deceased needed to borrow clothing in which to follow the corpse to the grave yard. All who knew the deceased speak very highly of him as a teacher and a Christian. Sickness in the family, and the salary of 150 Thlrs. per year, (about $125) were the cause of his misery. In spite of his disease, he met his scholars until two days before he died; when, at ten o'clock, A. M., he left his class-room, bidding his pupils forever adieu! This, you may say, is an extreme case of unrequited labor, but not so much would it seem an extreme if we knew the distress and tragedies occurring daily in many homes because the necessaries of life can not be bought with the wages received. I do not think larger salaries should *never* be paid; in many cases it is right enough; but we can wish justice might be meted, and the blessed mean between two extremes be speedily reached.

Leipsig. E. W.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER XIV.

A FEW weeks after the bridal visit of Baron Henry's daughters there was a great dinner party at Jadwiga's villa, to which the whole family of the President had received an invitation. But only the two eldest daughters with their future husbands had accepted. When they arrived at chateau Wolmerode, only part of the brilliant company had assembled. They were walking in groups under the shade-trees of the park. Doctor Staudner was in conversation with the host, Otto de Fernau, when one of the servants handed a note to the former. "Where did you get this?" asked Dr. Staudner. "A boy from the village brought it," was the answer.

Dr. Staudner, who enjoyed a brilliant practice in the metropolis, was now a bachelor of about fifty years. He lived in high style, saving for his old days—as he cynically remarked—what a wife would have cost him. After reading the note, he left the park and hastened with knitted brows towards the village. The note contained the following words:

"We were at your house, but did not find you. We implore you to come immediately to the hotel in the village. Our existence is at stake. "L. and A."

The doctor immediately knew who were the suppliants. Even before entering the village, he was met by two ladies whose faces showed signs of great concern. "What in the world is the matter with you?" asked the doctor bluntly. "This is doubtless another of your follies, and if you have to suffer for them, it serves you right."

The two ladies were more elegant than handsome. Their forms were slender, but not tall; their waists were wasplike, and bore the evidences of art. Their red lined parasols

reflecting some color upon their rather faded complexions, gave them, together with their evident excitement, the appearance of youth. Their voices were unmelodious and deep. Their dresses were perfectly alike, so that they hardly could be distinguished from each other. The harsh address of Doctor Staudner was answered by loud lamentations on their part.

"I can guess at your trouble," he continued. "The whole city is full of it. You will ruin your excellent father. But your mother must be blamed for all. She was a coquette when young, and is still so in spite of her years. She has spoiled you. You ought to be ashamed to behave thus in an institute which, even by the slightest suspicion against the character of the principal's family, must be ruined. Indeed, it is whispered about that your father will be deprived of his license."

"Good gracious," cried both Levana and Adelgunde Nesselborn in a pitiable voice.

"The prince is said to be enraged," continued the old friend of their father; "I am quite prepared to hear even to-day at the party—"

"How? The prince at de Fernau's party?" interrupted Lienhard's daughters with the expression of terror.

"At least he was expected. But what is the use of detaining me? I cannot do anything for you."

"O save us, save our father!" implored the two girls.

"How should that be possible?"

"Oh, speak with the prince—do speak with him!"

"It could be of no use," said the Doctor. "I certainly could not quiet him. It would be as easy to stop the wheels of a carriage running at full speed. The Prince has publicly declared that he will see the Minister of the Department to make him acquainted with the several scandalous facts that have recently transpired in a certain educational institute of the city—"

"Speak with the school-councillor,[1] then," cried Levana. "Do speak with him—"

1 In every provincial government of Prussia there is an educational department, consisting of a number of commissioners, with the title, "School Councillors" (*Schulrath*). Every member of this board has the care of a special district. Bögendorf was the "Councillor" for the schools in the district of the metropolis, a position of great influence and power.—*Transl.*

"Yes," added Adelgunde, "Mr. Bögendorf can do all he wants to—"

"But he wants to do nothing contrary to his duty," replied the Doctor. "And there are other powers that will be formidable to you—the entire school-board, your rival institutions—and the minister."

"But Bögendorf will not refuse you anything, and mother says—"

"What does mother say?"

"That he can do anything he pleases with the Minister, and that you, and—"

"And who?"

"And his daughter Theophania—"

"Ha! scandal-mongers that you are!"

The Doctor ejaculated these words with a genuine, not an assumed indignation, as before. Metropolitan gossip having fastened upon him a partiality for the somewhat withered charms of Bögendorf's daughter, the allusion to this "imputation," as he called it, had excited his anger. Looking at his watch, he was about to leave his fair interlocutors alone. But these, in their anguish, clung to him, sobbing and wailing. Their highly perfumed handkerchiefs were wet with tears of repentance and despair; this time perhaps sincere and unfeigned.

The Doctor's heart began to melt.

To the penetrating eyes of women these maids appeared as affected coquettes and hypocrites. But the judgment of men in such cases is considerably milder, although perhaps not quite so mild as Staudner's, who by no means was a Puritan. His cynical nature had not undergone any change since we made his acquaintance at Wildenschwert Castle. His views were governed by principles strongly impregnated with diabolical elements, which they had gradually absorbed from the atmosphere surrounding him. You would rarely see a smile upon his unhandsome, harshly-defined countenance, over which towered a forehead elongated into a cranium entirely bald. But when he was in confidential session with one of his selected friends, or even when alone in his sanctum, he might be seen bursting with laughter. Such paroxisms, which sometimes made his ser-

vants think that their master had lost his reason, were like the explosion of gases whose pressure had become irresistible. They generally happened when one of his projects, long nurtured, had become mature or was crowned with success. Nesselborn's daughters could not have chosen a person better qualified for the task of helping them. While they were making their assaults upon "uncle's" heart, as they used to call him, those nervous twitches, the forerunners of his laughing fits, were distinctly flashing over his features.

"Indeed, I must be back to the company," he said, extricating himself from the suppliants. "I shall consider what may be done in your desperate affair. But what does your father say to all this—?"

"Father is sitting in his locked room, and weeping," was the answer.

"Ah! I know—your grandfather is dead. But why do you not wear mourning?"

"Mother will not let us," answered the girls.

"Where is Theodore Waldner—?"

"Don't you know? He is with us."

"With—you? And Gertrude?"

"She is looking for a place as governess."

"Gertrude must remain with you—do you hear?"

"Ah!"

The girls knew that the Doctor had often paid visits to Mr. Anbelang in Steinthal, and had made the remark that, if he should ever marry, a being like Gertrude would determine his choice. Staudner said he was going to call in the evening on their father; meanwhile, he would try what might be done with the Prince or with Bögendorf. After these remarks he hastily retraced his steps toward Villa Wolmerode.

There he found a company of more than thirty guests sitting at dinner. The late comer was received with a confused medley of jesting remarks. But one loud voice silenced the rest:

"I am not so fortunate as to be among the number of the Doctor's patients, but I hear such marvelous accounts of his success that he might as well dispense with the trouble of

bribing messengers to call him away from dinner parties, as young practitioners will do to make people believe in their large patronage."

The person who addressed these words to the Doctor had his seat to the right of the mistress of the house. It was the Roumanian Prince Demetrius Porphyrogenitus, a Russian, under a Grecian cloak. People generally called him Prince Dmitri. He was, according to his own assertion, a lineal descendant of Miltiades, but the grade of his culture pointed to Rurik as his ancestor. Aside from a certain air of exclusiveness and self-sufficiency, which is a national characteristic of Russians, he betrayed an unmistakable affinity with the Orient, and the Pasha "with three horse-tails." His manners were rather French, which made the impression of a brilliant varnish on strong-scenting Muscovy leather.

Prince Porphyrogenitus, a year ago, had placed his two sons, the "princes" Constantine and Alexander, in Mr. Nesselborn's institute, and had attached to them a young Doctor of Philosophy as special tutor. The Prince was now on a visit to the metropolis, where he occupied a suite of rooms in one of the fashionable hotels. Notwithstanding the unpleasant news he had just heard in regard to his sons, he was chatting goodhumoredly over the dinner, popping off the rockets of his wit alternately in German and in French. Conversation had become general and lively. Among the guests there was, perhaps, more than the usual sprinkling of those accustomed to lead the conversation, but Mr. Bögendorf, the "School Councillor," seemed determined to monopolize attention. In this respect, however, he had found his match; for Prince Dmitri would allow nobody to speak but himself, if he could help it. To hear them talk was to listen to the contest between two Canary birds trying to out-sing each other. Bögendorf had just returned from a trip to Switzerland, where he had left his wife and daughter for the sake of their health. He was beginning to give an account of his trip.

"If you ascend the Rigi," were his introductory words—when he was interrupted by a servant offering him some pastry, out of which he adroitly fished the truffles, accom-

panying the action with a sharp twist of his facial lineaments—"

"You will have a reserved seat in one of Nature's sublimest theatres," suggested the Prince, filling out rapidly the pause caused by truffle-searching. "After a trying march you arrive at the summit by night, and, next morning, find yourself in gown and slippers standing at your window and waiting for the raising of the curtain, when who should appear but the manager, announcing that Mr. Sun, the principal actor, has a cold in his head, and that most of the other members are hoarse—hence, no performance to-day! And yet nobody thinks of returning your admission fee, amounting to eight francs for a room on Mount Rigi."

The Prince supposed that his remarks would raise boisterous laughter, of which he, accordingly, gave the signal. This simile, however, did not seem to be exactly to the taste of the audience, a few only being obliging enough to encourage him by a faint smile. But Doctor Staudner, who seldom laughed in public, when he saw nobody laughing suddenly burst out in a horse-laugh, as loud as his lungs would allow. All that knew of the Doctor's peculiarity were rather embarrassed, and nobody more so than the mistress of the house, who instantly perceived the insult offered to her high guest. The Prince, however, was far from thinking so, and rather flattered himself with having enlisted a new admirer of his genius, while Staudner secretly applauded himself for having discovered the proper way of insinuating himself in the good graces of the Prince.

At the same time a modest voice was heard to remark: "It would, at all events, be better if your Highness would ascend Mount Rigi in the Panorama! There every performance must take place exactly as announced, and, happen what may, Mr. Sun is bound to hold his levee."

"Very good!—very good, indeed!" shouted with great satisfaction the Prince, who saw in this broad hit nothing but an endorsement of his own wit. He who had thus obliged him was rather a subordinate guest, namely, young Doctor Hellwig, the instructor of the two sons of the house.

There was now, for Mr. Bögendorf, an opportunity for

continuing his narrative. "I had," said he, "on Mount Rigi the rare good fortune of finding Nature in her holiday garments. I ascended the mountain on horseback. Do not laugh, if you please! I rode the mare of a Swiss trooper of the National Militia, a patient, quiet animal!"

On the part of some army officers, there were contemptuous smiles intended as criticisms of the Swiss military system. Prince Dmitri, who had noticed these smiles, immediately interrupted the speaker, espousing the cause of Switzerland. "The Swiss military system," he said, "is very admirable for a country which is bound to a strict defensive. This dragoon, who probably was on furlough, had let you his horse for the government tax of—"

"Ten francs, Highness," shouted Dr. Staudner with a stentorian voice, which again made the audience nervous as to how the Prince would receive the interruption. But his Highness took the suggestion as a proof of the interest which his own military judgment had awakened in the Doctor. "Very true, ten francs," he said blandly, using his eye-glasses, to take a closer survey of his admirer's physiognomy.

Meanwhile Mr. Bögendorf, continuing his narrative, remarked that the grand scenery must fill all beholders with transports of delight, but that all this was marred by the most provoking incidents. Not only on Mount Rigi, but almost everywhere in Switzerland the avarice and greediness of the people had almost spoiled the enjoyment which he had derived from the exquisite beauties of Nature. There were the most outrageous prices in the hotels; almost everything was made the object of the meanest speculation; the very sunrise was sold to the traveler! And how intolerable were the manners of these travelers! Was it not, as if the follies of the whole world were collected on one spot—the braggadocio of the French, the apathy of the Americans, the affected oddity and impudence of the English—

But Ethnophysiography was one of Prince Dmitri's hobbies. At every one of the attributes by which Bögendorf characterized a nation, the Prince would interpose an emphatic "How so?" The man of the school being thus

silenced for a while, the Prince would give to the audience the benefit of his own experience as to the different races, distinguishing between the Englishman peregrinating and the Englishman domestic, the American of position and the American shoddy; commenting on the degrees of culture, rank, wealth, and so forth. He did not stop till the master of the house reminded him that it was very cold on the summit of Mount Rigi, and he ought to feel compassion with poor Mr. Bögendorf.

"And yet," continued Bögendorf, "the grandeur of the scene will make us forget everything that is commonplace in life. I was struck how even the conduct of the most flippant chambermaid, of the most ordinary footman, accompanying his master to Rigi-Rulm, bore testimony for the communion of our feelings and sympathies. These vast, gigantic masses expanding before our eyes, are the real, silent messengers of the Lord! This enormous extent from the mountains of Tyrol to the royal state of the 'Jungfrau,' and the 'Monk,' and 'Eiger,' her—"

"Lovers," shouted the Prince, seizing the opportunity of interrupting Bögendorf's unctious declamation.

"Mediæval retinue, I was going to say," mildly corrected the Councillor. "For *Monk* and *Eiger* are the satellites of the royal *Maiden*, the name *Eiger* being probably derived from the name of that Spirit in the Song of the Nibelungs. But the most remarkable impression is produced at the moment when the first ray of the sun comes over the clouds of mist in the eastern horizon. It is as if a sudden glow of life were gleaming over that vast region of snow and glaciers, as if a flood of light were warming these fields of shrouds. And this primeval solitude, this silent mourning of rigid Nature, does it not seem to be suddenly endowed with speech? And these gigantic figures preach to us the glory of the Most High, the praise of His creation, the connection of worlds, the harmony of spheres! When man is elevated to such sentiments, every utterance of common humanity must be grating to our ears. Even the Alpine horn, although at other places we may be delighted with its sweet, melancholy notes, which give us the impression of an indescribable, long suffering, despairing woe—"

"Charming, charming," cried the Prince. "You mean the nostalgia, or home-sickness of the Swiss. I know of it —I had a governess from the Canton of Vaud, and can tell you a capital story—"

But his Highness had to hear a distinct hissing, not indeed aimed directly at himself, but at Staudner, who had called aloud for the story, with the words, "Oh let us have it by all means, your Highness!" The hissing, however, prevented the story, and Mr. Bögendorf continued:

"But on Mount Rigi the Alpine horn, which they sound in honor of the rising sun, can only lessen the impressions of the sublime scene, and the worst is that together with it passes the box to receive your contributions for the one that has sounded it. This outrage acts as a damper on the holy feelings awakened by the sublimity of Nature. What different emotions would the singing of a morning hymn awaken, especially if performed by a well-trained church choir, which ought to be concealed from sight. If I consider what our own monarch has done for sacred music, it would, perhaps, be not too much to hope that he may feel disposed to carry my humble suggestions into effect. Mount Rigi would be a grander platform than the choir-galleries of both the Cologne and Berlin cathedrals.[1] The prospect from Mount Rigi would, then, be made a prospect into Eternity! Heavenly, indeed, would be the feelings engendered by one of Händel's choruses greeting on Mount Rigi the rising sun—"

"Certainly," interrupted the incorrigible Roumanian, hopelessly destitute of all taste for romantic religion. "Certainly, whilst now we only feel provoked at the sinful bills—one franc and a half for a single bottle of soda water." The wretch had ruthlessly destroyed the effects of the last part of Bögendorf's unctious address, which had been especially edifying to the two young brides.

At this juncture the master of the house proved his tact by a skilful intervention. "The district of Mount Rigi," he

1 This is a slur on the late King Frederick William IV, brother of the present Emperor of Germany. He was often ridiculed for his peculiar "romantic" tendencies and hobbies, one of which was the improvement of church music. He spent much time and money in organizing the celebrated choirs of the Cologne and Berlin cathedrals, for which, according to the belief of the people, he felt a stronger interest than for the administration of the State. Projects similar to the one suggested by Bögendorf he often seriously entertained.—*Translator.*

said, "is Roman Catholic to my knowledge. His Majesty, therefore, would encounter some difficulties, should he think of sending to Switzerland for some weeks in the summer the celebrated choir of our cathedral, in order to sing their Protestant hymns on that sublime spot. But diplomacy may overcome all obstacles, and I can only say that your plan, my dear Councillor, is admirable. Perhaps a society may be formed, if—"

Here the speaker was interrupted by the strains of martial music, which, at some distance, was sung by boys' voices. After each stanza drums were beaten, and trumpets sounded in regular march time.

The Prince asked what that music meant? He was informed by some of the guests that the students of the Nesselborn Institute were on a kind of military excursion, and that the music was theirs. This intelligence completely abated Prince Dmitri's good humor, and Bögendorf, too, began to cast his eyes in the direction of his plate.

"That worthy Mr. Nesselborn," cried the Prince, raising his shrill voice to an unnatural pitch, "had better keep his pupils under lock. What a fuss people make in Germany with their education! Speak with whomever you please, they will all tell you that no other nation is able to bring up so perfect specimens of humanity. But, with your permission, ladies and gentlemen, both their method and discipline are so execrable that it is difficult to say which of the two is worse. The students are treated with indigestible or useless subjects, and so grow up like savages. Barbarism and want of taste become their portions for life. The only teachers that in your country are good for anything, are the French; they alone pursue a judicious and progressive method, which ultimately enables the student to appreciate the immortal works of Racine and Corneille. But it is just these French teachers that are slighted and denounced, at the instigation of those who are too ignorant to form even the easiest French sentence. To crowd out, if possible, the French, they have introduced the English language, which they like for the reason that it is easy, irregular like a wilderness, arbitrary, and imposes upon the minds no restraint from obnoxious rules. No wonder that school and education are demoralized in Germany. A nation with a literature such as

the Germans have, can only rush from revolution to revolution. Mention, if you can, another literature that commenced with two works judicially condemned to be burned by the hangman, as it was the case with Göthe's 'Werther' and Schiller's 'Robbers,' the former of which recommends murdering one's self, and the latter, murdering others."

The expression in the faces of almost the whole audience manifested their indignation at this strange harangue, and if the impertinent remarks of the Prince were not loudly denounced, the reason seemed to be that they expected the School Councillor to speak first. But it was just he who abstained from making any remark, and even assumed a mien which might be interpreted as a kind of assent. Encouraged by this want of opposition, the Prince continued:

"Catalogues are scattered broadcast, and programmes representing a school as the paragon of all educational institutes, as Plato's Academy revived and adapted to the requirements of our age. Proud names, widely known, are used as references, and the testimonies of men that have never seen the school or any of its teachers with their eyes, vouch for the high abilities and consummate skill of Mr. So and So. The fact is that all this is the most unmitigated humbug. The school is a fraud! The teachers are dunces! The principal is a masterpiece of confusion! The students control the plan of instruction, upsetting it every other day. If the Government commissioners come to inspect the school, the principal's wife invites them to an elegant lunch! Then, with the fumes of champagne on their brains, the gentlemen supervisors take a hasty glance at the different classes, and report "That all was good." And then the nuisance of gymnastic grounds resounding with wild tumult and shoutings, and driving the whole neighborhood to despair. That yelling and bellowing is held out as an evidence of the *mens sana in corpore sano*, but, if it proves anything, it proves that the whole school has been turned into a menagerie! O *fi donc!* These boisterous processions, these excursions into the mountains, these trips even to Switzerland —are nothing but quack-advertisements, continuing the humbug of the catalogues. I wonder that they do not placard them on the street corners with pictures in colored

print. Pshaw! I am, surely, no friend of the convents. *Au contraire.* But in the schools of the convents the teachers are kept in together with their pupils, and not allowed to loaf on the streets. The purposes of the school can only be achieved behind bolts and bars, on the wooden forms of the class-room. If there must be exercise, let it be taken in the shadowy walks of a walled garden. But your Institutes are like the mouse-tower at Bingen, all full of holes for getting out, and for enjoying that divine German freedom, dating from your Frederick von Schillers robbers.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW YORK.—STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT GENESEO, N.Y. The building for the Wadsworth Normal and Training School, at Geneseo, has been completed, and accepted by the Normal School Commission, on the part of the State. In accordance with the provisions of the statute, the State Superintendent has appointed a Local Board of nine members, as follows: Hon. Scott Lord, Hon. Solomon Hubbard, Hezekiah Allen, Hon. James Wood, Dr. Walter E. Lauderdale, Col. John Roebach, James W. Wadsworth, Adoniam J. Abbott, Daniel Bigelow. The Board organized by the election of Hon. James Wood, as President, and Dr. Walter E. Lauderdale, as Secretary. Prof. Wm. J. Milne, of the Brockport Normal School, was selected as Principal, and his nomination has been confirmed by the State Superintendent.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.—The following is a complete list of all the county institutes appointed the present year, for which provision had been made up to September, 1871. Two instructors are generally provided for each institute, a conductor and an assistant. These are appointed by the State Superintendent, Hon. Abram B. Weaver. The local arrangements are made by the commissioners in the respective counties. The attendance upon institutes has been generally increasing, and they have also improved in character and efficiency as training schools for teachers.

INSTITUTES OF 1871.

Counties.	*Place.*	*Date.*	*Duration.*	*Counties.*	*Place.*	*Date.*	*Duration.*
Albany	Watervliet	Mar 27	1 week.	Onondaga	Baldwinsville	Sept 18	2 weeks
Allegany	Belmont	Sept	2 weeks	Ontario	Canandaigua	Oct. 2	2 "
Broome	Binghampton	Aug 21	2 "	Orange	Newburgh	Aug. 7	2 "
Cattaraugus	Olean	Aug 21	2 "	Orleans	Albion	Oct. 16	2 "
Cayuga	Moravia	Oct. 16	2 "	Oswego			
Chautauqua	Dunkirk	Aug 21	2 "	Otsego	Cooperstown	Sept. 4	2 "
Chemung	Horseheads	Sept 18	2 "	Putnam			
Chenango	Norwich	Sept 18	2 "	Queens			
Clinton	Plattsburgh	Aug. 7	2 "	Rensselaer	Hart's Falls.	Oct. 16	2 "
Columbia	Ghent	" 21	2 "	Richmond	Stapleton	Apl. 17	2 "
Cortland	Cortland	Oct. 16	2 "	Rockland	Nyack	Sept 18	1 week.
Delaware	Walton& Delhi.	Sept 18	2 "	St. Lawrence	Potsdam Junc.	Mar. 6	2 weeks
Dutchess	Poughkeepsie	May 15	2 "	Saratoga	Ballston	Sept. 4	2 "
Erie	Aurora	Oct. 16	2 "	Schenectady	Schenectady	Oct. 30	2 "
Essex	Crown Point	Oct. 2	2 "	Schoharie	Schoharie (C. H)	Aug. 7	2 "
Franklin	Malone	Oct. 2	2 "	Schuyler	Watkins	Sept. 4	2 "
Fulton	Gloversville	Aug 21	2 "	Seneca	Waterloo	Oct. 2	2 "
Genesee	Batavia	Oct. 2	2 "	Steuben	Bath	Sept 18	2 "
Greene	Windham Cen.	" 2	2 "	Suffolk			
Herkimer				Sullivan	Monticello	Aug 21	2 "
Jefferson	Watertown	Sept 18	2 "	Tioga	Owego	Oct. 2	
Kings				Tompkins	Ithaca	Sept 18	2 "
Lewis	Martinsburgh	Sept 18	2 "	Ulster	Kingston	Aug 21	2 "
Livingston	Geneseo	Oct.		Warren	Warrensburgh	Aug. 7	2 "
Madison	Morrisville	Oct. 2	2 "	Washington	Greenwich	Aug 21	2 "
Monroe	Pittsford	Oct. 6	2 "	Wayne	Palmyra	Oct. 2	2 "
Montgomery				Westchester	Yonkers	May 8	1 week.
Niagara	Lockport	Sept 18	2 "	Wyoming	Warsaw	Oct. 16	2 weeks
Oneida	Rome	Oct. 2	2 "	Yates	Penn Yan	Sept. 4	2 "

A. B. Hepburn of Colton, St. Lawrence Co., has been appointed School Commissioner of the second district, in place of Wm. G. Brown resigned.

BROOKLYN, N. Y.—The school population of Brooklyn, including all the children between the ages of 5 and 21 years, is as follows: Between 5 and 14 years, 86,842; between 14 and 21 years, 48,355; colored children, between 5 and 21 years, 1,512. Total, 136,709. Considering the fact that very few children in the public schools are above the age of 14 years (probably not more than 1,500 in all the schools), it will appear that of 86,842 above mentioned, there are not more than 22,600 who have not received during the year some instruction in the public schools. The schools of the city have been taught the past year by 823 teachers, of whom 34 are men and 789 are women. The whole number of pupils enrolled is 28,355. The average register is 40,979. The average attendance for the year is 35,938, being 36 per cent. of the whole number registered, and nearly 88 per cent. of the average register. The amount expended for teachers' wages in the day schools was $480,547.24, being *per capita* for pupils as follows: On average attendance, $13.65; on

average register, $11.72; on whole numper of pupils instructed, $7.23. The total currency expense of maintaining the schools has been $658,228.15, being at the rate of $18.31 for each pupil in average daily attendance. The music department costs about $10,000 annually. The evening schools were in session during three months, and included seven for white and two for colored pupils.

ENGLAND.—The London School Board has agreed upon a general scheme of education proposed by Prof. Huxley. The scheme includes three classes of schools, infant schools for children under seven, in which the sexes are to be mixed—junior schools for children between seven and ten, in which boys and girls may be taught either together or apart, as seems most desirable in each locality, and senior schools for children between ten and thirteen or upwards, in which the boys and girls should be taught separately; the junior and senior schools to be organized, as far as possible, on the large scale for schools of 500 each, but the infant schools not to exceed 250 or 300 at the most. Sixteen teachers are to be allotted to a school of 500—one head, four certified assistant teachers, and eleven pupil-teachers. The schools are to be open generally five hours daily for five days in the week.

Corporal punishment is not to be absolutely forbidden, but it is never to be inflicted by pupil-teachers, and never at all without the sanction of the head master, and its frequent use will be regarded as a sign of a teacher's incompetence. Scripture with explanation, music, and drill are to be taught in every school.

"AH! who can tell how hard it is to climb," remarked a young man as he assisted a young Baltimore belle up the steep ascent to Fairview, Berkeley Springs, W. Va. "Yes," answered she of the monumental city. "It is as hard going up as going to the top of the Washington monument." "Or Bunker Hill," suggested the sympathetic swain, as he helped her over a stone. "Is that in Washington?" asked the girl (who by the bye, was just out of a fashionable school), "I havn't traveled much, so I don't know Bunker Hill."

CORRESPONDENCE.

LEPZIG, *Aug.* 15, 1871.

MR. EDITOR, under the name of "*Allgemeiner Erziehungs Verein*," a society has been formed in Dresden, embracing members from all parts of Germany, and even of Holland, Scotland and America.

The aims of this "*General Educational Union*," are:

I. *To make education and its improvement a common cause of the people.*

II. *Means to accomplish this aim*:

1. Formation of branch societies in city, town and village, whose object it is to establish institutions for the better education of females, with a special view to their general educative talent; to introduce improvements in educational institutions for the furtherance of the bodily and mental health of the pupils; to multiply Kinder-Gärten (particularly for the lower classes) and unite them organically with the public schools, and to assist in publication and distribution of juvenile books and papers, and enlargement of popular libraries.

III. Training of male and female teachers in a *Normal School*, conducted according to the principles of the society.

IV. Publication of a paper promulgating the principles of the society in a popular way, a supplement of which would be distributed gratuitously to mothers of the working classes, for the purpose of teaching them the general principles of hygiene and education, and

V. Lectures on subjects of education. The society declares the following to be their fundamental principles.

1. The thorough improvement of our educational systems, called for at the present time, can be attained only by beginning with the very beginning of the life of the individual.

2. Education should assist, never disturb, a free development of the individual, in accordance with human nature.

3. The general aim of all education is to educate morally free, religious and practically able men and women.

4. The present time requires particularly that education should tend to formation of character to develope power to will and to do, and to lead the soul to the beautiful, ideal and sublime.

5. The society acknowledges in Froebel's system of education the safest foundation for the early education of children, and find in it leading features for all degrees of higher education.

6. The society deems it particularly necessary that the mind in its development should be led to a knowledge of its own being, as different from the material world which surrounds it.

Although there is nothing strikingly new in the principles of this new educational society, their purpose is certainly a very laudable one, and if they only succeed in establishing an educational institute for the training of young ladies for professional teachers and introduce more Kinder-Gärten schools in connection with the public schools, and place them under proper superintending authorities, they will have accomplished a great work for Germany.

Yours, etc., E. W.

EMMA'S PUBLIC SCHOOL IN NEW JERSEY.

MR. EDITOR, we have had a reception in our public school. Everything went off magnificently. We had instrumental solos and quartettes, recitations and declamations in English, French and German. We were all dressed in our purest white, trimmed with ribbons of all hues, and the piano too was covered with flowers—the gifts of friends. We had prizes, presents from the teachers to the pupils most distinguished in deportment, in punctuality and attendance, and in arithmetic and grammar.

After the music and recitations, the principal requested Mr. X. a nice young man, to address us; this gentleman said he "was quite unprepared to speak (the usual introduction) that he did not know what he should say. He felt indeed

quite shaky, utterly bedizzened, something like a canary in a cage turned upside-down—all in a flutter. The eloquent recitations, the charming music, the gorgeous appearance generally had upset his equilibrium, for he had never calculated upon such a display of brains, music and wit." However (after a pulmonary gasp), he "was reminded of a little anecdote about poor Paddy, a sailor, who hurried on deck and asked the captain, 'if anything was lost when you knew where it was?' 'By no means,' answered the captain; 'then your best copper kettle, which a gale has just carried overboard is not lost, begorra.'" "From this," our orator remarked, "we should discover the value of the study of logic, in which he hoped we were making progress. By all means, grammar was not to be neglected, study your grammar; then, such a mistake as 'a pair of days' made by a poor German woman, will be avoided by you."

He advised us to eschew all study during our two months' vacation, and to amuse ourselves at ball and marbles, etc. He then said he had nothing more to say, he was finished. After this valedictory, he triumphantly withdrew.

Y.

VON RAUMER, the German historian, was 90 years old on the 14th of May. He has been a professor of the University of Berlin for 53 years. Some of these old book-worms live to a fine old age. Fontenelle died at the age of 100, after having been secretary of the French Academy of Sciences for 40 years. Voltaire called him the most universal genius of his time. Hippocrates died at 109; Swedenborg at 85; Harvey at 81; Heberden at 92; Ruysch at 93; Sir Christopher Wren retired from carpentering at 86 and died at 91; Humboldt at 90; Josiah Quincy, Jun., at 92; President Nott at 93 years and 8 months. But beyond these stands Dr. Theophilus Clark, of Tinmouth, Vermont, who is probably the oldest practicing physician in the Old World or the New. He is 98 years of age, has been in constant practice for 66 years, is hale and hearty, and has no more thought of giving up the active duties of his profession than when he was a boy of 50.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

THE STUDY OF GERMAN.

THE incessant production of new instruments and machines for the performance of the same work argues dissatisfaction with the old ones. In like manner, each successive method for the study of foreign languages points to the twofold conviction on the part of the new author, that none of his predecessors had succeeded in discovering the true system, and that his book more closely approximates perfection than those that went before. One part of this conviction is, alas! too often well-founded, for the major part of the methods are essentially defective, as well in the original contrivance as in the final development. Such is the social state at the present time, that few persons, if any, set about acquiring a foreign language for other than the purposes of intercourse with those who speak it as the mother tongue, and for the practical purposes of life. And as more labor is necessary to attain to the colloquial mastery of a language,—that mastery which enables us to use the language with ease and advantage for the expression of our ideas,—than to acquire a mere reading-knowledge, so methods intended to lead to the former should be much more thorough and more carefully prepared than others designed to impart the latter only. Suppose a person with acquirements in a modern language in all respects equivalent to those of the most accomplished Hellenist in the idiom of the ancient Greeks: how sorrily would he figure in the simplest conversation with a native; besides his awkward, clumsy attempts at expression, he would find the vocabulary he has most at command to be altogether unsuited to the themes of every-day dialogue. Evidently his knowledge is not practical. Practical methods can alone guide to practical knowledge. Hence, if we admit practical methods to be those which impart the knowledge of things by the *practice* of those same things, the totality of the so-called systems hitherto blindly followed should be condemned, as unfitted to lead to the end for which they were produced. We have never seen or heard of any one learning a foreign language

colloquially through the manuals used in general by teachers, whether in classes or with private pupils.

The foregoing statement may seem sweeping and severe; but, before proving it to be false, it would be necessary to show the fallacy of the arguments from which it is naturally inferred. Analytical methods can alone be said to be practical, for, in the study of language analysis means the study of the writings of the foreign author, translation from the *foreign* to the *native* idiom, and the consequent involuntary learning of words as idiomatically combined in the connected discourse, thus avoiding the very possibility of erroneous phraseology by inuring and accustoming the student's ear to the received phraseology, and grammatical principles of the language before him. It is vain to hope to learn a language by the memorization of rules and the composition of barbarous sentences. The proper method to learn a piece of music is surely not to study in the first place certain general rules applicable to all music, and then to proceed to execute the piece. The power to execute can alone be attained by first practising the music over and over until it is impressed upon the memory, and until the ear becomes accustomed to the particular sequence of sounds which concur to form the task-piece. In other words, the music must be analyzed. Analysis is the mode of receiving impressions; synthesis that of transmitting them to others: "*impression* must precede *expression*," therefore analysis must of necessity go before synthesis.

The great defect, then, of the methods hitherto used consists in attempting to teach languages on grammatical principles, requiring of the student to compose in the new language before he has become practically acquainted with its structure. Grammatical rules are positively prejudicial on commencing the study of a foreign language, as they weaken the learner's attention by diverting it from the truly useful end to be kept in view, namely, speaking; indeed they are not even essential to thoroughness in the vernacular, as a proof of which we have but to remind the reader of what was accomplished in all branches of literature before grammars existed. The one of which the foundation was laid by the immortal Stagyrite, towards the beginning of the 4th century B.C., and which was finally arranged in the 2nd century of our

era, did not guide Homer, Euripides, Sophocles, Aristophanes, etc., in the composition of their hitherto unequalled productions. Even in modern times, Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Addison, Pope, Johnson, and other masters in England; Molière, Corneille, the inimitable La Bruyère, Pascal, Racine, etc., in France, all had delighted and astonished the world with their masterpieces before the publication of any regular treatise on the grammar of their respective languages. But to dismiss this subject, we will add that, whenever grammar is forced upon the attention of the learner at the outset of study, he soon becomes tired and even disgusted with a labor which shows no prospect of ultimate proficiency or distinction.

The foregoing remarks are provoked by a new book for the study of the German language, lately ushered into the educational world,[1] and which, inasmuch as we do not at all times share that twofold conviction of new authors alluded to in the opening of this article, we do not feel justified in hailing as the best simply because it is the latest. The question must first be put and answered: Does Mr. Wrage's work present any real superiority over its forerunners, and if so, what claims to distinction can be urged in its favor? We observe a capital defect in the very title: the author calls his book a practical *grammar;* but the defect exists in appearance only, for the plan is widely separated from the grammatical one, which is merely followed in as far as the order of treating the parts of speech is concerned, which latter feature might very well have been dispensed with, as entirely unnecessary, and, we should add, proscribed by Mr. Wrage's grand model, the profound practical linguist, Mons. C. Marcel. We surmise, however, that the author of the *New Practical Grammar*, adopted both the title and the order referred to, in deference to the received custom, which he was perhaps fearful to controvert too abruptly in matters of comparatively minor importance. We would willingly also reprove another and, in our judgment, more vital defect in the new book: with the observations made above, concerning analytical methods, before us, we cannot but object to the introduction from the very first lesson, of exer-

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1 A New Practical Grammar of the German Language. By Hermann D. Wrage, A. B. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

cises to be translated from English into German: from the *known* to the *unknown*. This plan is persisted in through every lesson to the end of the work. But if we have to cite such faultiness as the foregoing, the evil effects of which, after all, it is in the power of both teacher and pupil to avoid, we see much to commend in Mr. Wrage's manual. He has studiously avoided multiplying objects for the learner's attention; *language* seems evidently to be the end kept in view from the outset, while the smaller, though indispensable accessories, orthography, pronunciation, syntactical arrangement, etc., he relies upon being imbibed insensibly and without any special effort on the part of the student in his onward course towards colloquial mastery. To that end the author has placed at the conclusion of each lesson a short piece for reading exercise, presenting in a united whole the elements already mastered in the lesson itself, and in all the preceding lessons. When new elements occur in the reading pieces, they are explained in foot-notes, which judicious plan reveals experience and observation on the part of the author, and relieves the pupil of the hurtful and tiresome necessity of groping through dictionaries which he is yet unable to use with profit. The vocabularies at the opening of each lesson appear to us altogether objectionable, inasmuch as they in most cases present isolated words, evidently intended as a mnemonic exercise, which, we trust, the skilful teacher will sedulously refrain from imposing upon his pupils; for it cannot fail to fatigue them to no purpose, and, worst of all, to weaken the beneficial results to be derived from the study of complete sentences.

If our report on the *New Practical Grammar* had been based upon the acceptation it has met with since its publication, much more favorable would it have been and more flattering to the author, for we are informed it has been adopted in a large number of the leading educational institutes in this city and throughout the United States at large, and merited the sanction of many of the more prominent professors of German. In spite of its shortcomings, however, we have, perhaps, reason to rejoice with Mr. Wrage, and congratulate him on the success of his book, marking, as it certainly does, a step toward perfection and, what is better still, the eagerness with which enlightened teachers

seek after and adopt the best material within reach for the accomplishment of their labor.

Prof. Peabody's *Astronomy*[1] has been out some two years, and must be already in extensive use; but we are confident that we are doing the schools a good service in calling the attention of teachers anew to the work. Among the many good text-books on this subject, this, in our judgment, holds a conspicuous rank. We have personal knowledge of Prof. Peabody's skill and success as a teacher in mathematics, and find in his book the same lucidity of statement and happy construction of diagrams which have always characterized his work in the class-room. Such pupils as are grounded in the elements of geometry and algebra will find no difficulty in mastering so much of the science of the stars as is here given them. The author holds the judicious mean between the dreary inanities of "Geographies of the Heavens" and the purely mathematical treatment proper to treatises designed for the university student.

MISCELLANEA.

SIR JOHN LUBBOCK set the English Parliament laughing the other day over samples of science culled from the school-books lately issued for use in the new national schools. Iceland, the children are informed, is in America; sap is not black as is generally supposed, but, in the opinion of many eminent authorities, is of a dark blue color; the seed of the sweet pea is not much larger than a pin's head, yet it contains, compactly folded up, a large, branchy, flowering plant; fishes have no voice, except seals and whales; the use of flies is to keep the warm air pure and wholesome by its constant zigzag flight. Some of the books used in our own schools fairly rival the issues of the National Society.—*Christian Union.*

1 THE ELEMENTS OF ASTRONOMY: for colleges, schools, and private students. Written for Ray's Mathematical Course, by Selim H. Peabody, M. A., Teacher of Natural Sciences in the [Chicago High School. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. [8vo. 336 pp. *Seven star maps.*]

PLUCKY EXAMPLE.—A sturdy youth, not yet of age, who owns and works with his own hands a farm of eighty acres in South-western Iowa, thirty miles from Omaha, left his agriculture the other day, and has reached Easton, with a view to pursuing studies in Lafayette College. His name is Austin Norwood; aged eighteen. When he graduates, he expects to return to his domain and resume the practice of "what he knows about farming."

SOME of our readers may have more or less trouble, at some period of their lives, in repairing water-pipes, where the water cannot be shut off conveniently at the fountain-head or some intermediate point. Recently I saw a man repairing a lead pipe, which had been cut off accidentally in making an excavation. There was a pressure of water of more than fifty feet head. His plan seemed novel and ingenious. The two ends of the pipe were plugged, and then a small pile of broken ice and salt was placed around them; in five minutes the water in the pipe was frozen, the plugs removed, a short piece of pipe inserted and perfectly soldered, and in five minutes more the ice in the pipe was thawed and the water flowing freely through.

QUESTION TO PHILOLOGISTS: What is the famous hexameter, put in the mouth of Satan by one of the Christian fathers, which is the same whether read from the beginning or from the end?

"BOTTLING THE SUN" is the characteristic title given by its French discoverer to a curious process by which the heat of the sun can be fixed in a closed vessel so as to be used at will. A vase constructed for the purpose is exposed for a quarter of an hour to the action of the sun's rays, when it is hermetically sealed with a cork, through which a small hole has been drilled. Upon holding a powerful lens before this hole, and converging the imprisoned rays on the wick of a candle about a yard distant, the candle is lighted almost instantly. The discovery is certainly a most curious one, and may prove of great practical utility.

IT is again reported that the rock over which the Mississippi pours, at the falls of St. Anthony, is steadily crumbling away.

SCHOOL CATALOGUES RECEIVED.

MONTICELLO ACADEMY, N. Y., F. G. Snook, Principal. Number of teachers, eight. Pupils, 204.

OXFORD ACADEMY, N. Y., Herbert J. Cook, A.M., Principal. "With a full corps of teachers in all departments."

BROOKS SEMINARY, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., Miss Mary B. Johnson, Principal. Teachers, nine.

FREEHOLD YOUNG LADIES' SEMINARY, N. J., Amos Richardson, A.M., and Miss Ruth F. Richardson, Principals. Instructors, eight.

UNIVERSITY FEMALE INSTITUTE, Lewisburg, Pa., Rev. Justin R. Loomis, LL.D., President. Officers and Instructors, eleven. Number of pupils, 95.

SUSQUEHANNA COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, Towanda, Pa., G. W. Ryan, and E. E. Quinlan, Principals. Faculty, twelve. Students, 232. Ladies, 119. Gentlemen, 113.

HAGERSTOWN FEMALE SEMINARY, Md., Rev. Wm. F. Eyster, A.M., Principal. Faculty of Instruction, eight. Number of pupils, 87.

ROCK HILL COLLEGE, Ellicott City, Md., Brother Azarias, President. Pupils, 165.

BETHEL ACADEMY, near Warrenton, Va., A. G. Smith, Principal. Teachers six. Pupils, 76.

HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE, Va., S. C. Armstrong, Principal. Instructors, eleven. Students, 86.

WHEELING FEMALE COLLEGE, W. Va., Rev. Wm. H. Morton, A.M., President. Faculty, thirteen. Pupils, 182.

WESTERN FEMALE SEMINARY, Oxford, Ohio, Miss Helen Peabody, Principal. Teachers, fifteen. Students, 196.

CLEVELAND FEMALE SEMINARY, Ohio, S. N. Sanford, A.M., President. Number of teachers, twelve.

YOUNG LADIES' SEMINARY, Lake Forest, Ill., Edward P. Weston, A.M., Principal. Instructors, thirteen. Pupils, 202.

ABINGTON COLLEGE, Ill., James W. Butler, A.M., President. Faculty, eleven. Students, 236. Gentlemen, 148. Ladies, 88.

EMINENCE COLLEGE, Ky., Elder W. S. Giltner, A.M., President. Faculty, ten. Students, 190. Males, 92. Females, 98.

KENTUCKY MILITARY INSTITUTE, near Frankfort, Ky., Col. R. T. P. Allen, A.M., C.E., Superintendent. Academic Staff, nine. Students, 112.

MARIETTA MALE ACADEMY, Ga., Edwin P. Cater, A.M., Principal; "assisted by competent teachers in all the departments."

NORMAL AND PREPARATORY DEPARTMENTS OF ATLANTA UNIVERSITY, Atlanta, Ga., E. A. Ware, A.M., President. Instructors, seven. Students, 89.

SYNODICAL FEMALE COLLGE, Florence, Ala., Rev Wm. H. Mitchell, D.D., President. "Aided by an accomplished and efficient corps of teachers." Number of pupils, 91.

DUE WEST FEMALE COLLEGE, Due West, S. C., Rev. J. I. Bonner, President. Faculty, seven. Pupils, 115.

CENTRAL FEMALE INSTITUTE, Clinton, Miss., Rev. Walter Hillman, M.A., President. Board of Instruction, nine. Pupils, 123.

☞ Principals and School Officers are requested to send to the Editor their Catalogues as soon as issued.

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

A Good Catalogue of School Books. The "Descriptive Catalogue of the American Educational Series," published by Messrs. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., calls for special attention on account of its convenient form and its exceedingly beautiful typographical appearance. We are glad to see evidence of such artistic care in American book-making, especially in a field where utility is often considered an excuse for its absence. Among the works named in the catalogue, some have long been popular text-books of education, and their titles remind us of early struggles and triumphs at school or college, while others have more recently secured their honorable place in this peculiar department of literature. Charles W. Saunders is now far advanced in life, but his series of Spellers and Readers seems as fresh and useful as when the school-boy of thirty years ago was toiling up the rhetorical ladder from "Primer" to "Fifth Reader." Robinson's Series of Mathematics has won its popularity within the past ten years only, but the publishers claim that it is more generally in use than any other series in the country. Passing beyond the list of elementary school books we find the titles of standard scientific works by Profs. Dana and Gray, and Mr. D. A. Wells. The scientific series by the latter is to be revised by the author, assisted by Prof. Joy of Columbia College. Among the new publications announced in this catalogue, is Mr. Swinton's "Condensed History of the United States." A series of "Spencerian Drawing Books," by Mr. Hitchings late Professor of Drawing U. S. Naval Academy, is also announced. A work on Commercial Law, by the author of the "Analysis of the Constitution," Mr. Townsend, is in press.—*N. Y. Evening Post, Aug. 30th*, 1871.

Milton Bradley & Co., of Springfield, Mass., have invented and published many things for the amusement and instruction of youth and adults, but they have now really excelled themselves in their Kindergarten Alphabet and Building Blocks for the little ones. Every parent blessed with children has experienced the absolute necessity for alphabet blocks, and has noticed the early attempts of the children to build something with them. Heretofore the best alphabet blocks have not been made in a form convenient for building purposes. In these blocks the manufacturers have used the forms adopted by Froebel, and embellished them with alphabets and animals which are stamped into the blocks so that they will not wear off.

H. W. Ellsworth & Co., Publishers, 756 Broadway, New York, advise teachers and friends of Education everywhere, to make themselves acquainted with the *best*, most *popular* and *practical* system of Writing and Book-Keeping by sending for the "WRITING TEACHER and BUSINESS ADVISER."

"100 Choice Selections, No. 4," will soon be issued by P. Garrett & Co., 702 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia. The publishers of this popular "*Series*," of which three numbers are already before the public, and their merits so well-known that comment is hardly necessary. Each number is sold for 30 cents in paper binding, and 75 cents in cloth. Those who have the first numbers will want *this*, and those who *have not* should order *all four* at once.

The same publishers have revised their well-known "Excelsior Dialogues," for advanced speakers, and reduced the price to $1.25, making it the *cheapest*, as well as the *best* book of the kind out.

A Webster's Dictionary Free to Every Subscriber. Subscribers to the Herald of Health and Journal of Physical Culture for the coming year, are to have free, Webster's matchless Pocket Dictionary, which is now attracting so much attention. It contains nearly 300 pages, and many illustrations. 18,000 of the most important words, tables, phrases, abbreviations, proverbs, rules for spelling, etc., etc., on tinted paper, with gilt edges, tuck, and is the most useful pocket companion extant. The price of the Herald is $2.00 a year, October, November and December Nos. free to those who subscribe now. Any one sending 100 subscribers at one time at the above rates will get a gold watch worth $75.00. Send 12 cents extra for postage on the book. Address Wood & Holbrook, 15 Laight Street, New York.

Premiums. The publisher of the Illustrated Phrenological Journal is offering most *liberal premiums* for clubs to his *popular* and *useful* Magazine. By paying $1.00 in cash, and sending only a small number of subscribers, you can secure a first-class $55.00 Grover & Baker Sewing Machine. A more liberal offer cannot be made, and the agent has great inducements to offer to the subscribers. Send your address, with stamps for postage, and you will receive specimen number and full particulars. Address S. R. WELLS, 389 Broadway, N. Y.

Three Months Free!—THE ILLUSTRATED PHRENOLOGICAL JOURNAL.—Now is the time. To all who subscribe for the Phrenological Journal for 1872 before the first of November, 1871, will be sent the Oct., Nov. and Dec. numbers *free*. This offer is made to all new subscribers, so now is the time to get *three months free*. Only $3.00 a year in advance. Send stamps for specimen No. Address at once, S. R. WELLS, Publisher, 389 Broadway, New York.

A Live Home Journal—Notable Change. Last October, *Hearth and Home* passed into the hands of Messrs. Orange Judd & Co., of 245 Broadway, New York, the well-known publishers of the *American Agriculturist*—a journal long without a rival in sterling value and circulation. The marked improvements then expected to appear in *Hearth and Home* have been fully realized, and it is now one of the choicest illustrated journals anywhere issued for the family circle—adapted to both the juvenile and adult people, and meeting the special wants of the housekeeper. Besides it supplies very useful chapters for the garden and farm, and an important *news* sheet, giving a valuable *resume* of the news for a week, up to the moment of issue. From $900 to $800 worth of very fine engravings beautify *each* weekly number. We notice now a still further mark of enterprise on the part of the publishers; they have secured the exclusive editorial services of Edward Eggleston, so widely and favorably known by his writings in *Scribner's Monthly*, and many other Magazines and Journals, and especially as the chief superintending Editor of the *New York Independent* for some time past. With this notable addition to the previously strong editorial force, *Hearth and Home* can not fail to merit and command a prominent place in every household, in city, village and country. Specimen copies can doubtless be obtained of the publishers, as above. Terms only $3 a year. Single numbers 8 cents. *Hearth and Home* and *American Agriculturist* together, $4 a year. Better add one or both of them to your supply of reading; they are each worth infinitely more than the small cost.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL GUIDE,

ISSUED BY PROF. EDW. WIEBE.

Leipzig, Germany.

(Continued from SEPTEMBER No.)

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCY.

Leipzig, (Dorrienstrasse 2,) Aug. 25th, 1871.

EXPENSES OF LIVING IN LEIPZIG.

IN order to procure Board and Lodging for the young ladies of my party I made an advertisement for one day in the "*Leipziger Tageblatt*," paid for it 7½ new groschen—20½ cents American money, and received more than thirty applications. It was not an easy task to select from such a large number of rooms, the most suitable ones that were not the most expensive ones. However, I worked myself through this performance in three days, and had the advantage of comparison in regard to localities, and prices for these and board in Leipzig to enable me to have an opinion of the expense of living in Leipzig, to which a student will have to submit, if he or she wish to live comfortably.

A well-furnished room and smaller bed-room (or alcove), uncarpeted (for carpets are not customary in Germany), with one or two beds in second, third or fourth story, which may answer for two young ladies or gentlemen, cost from 5 to 8 thalers a month. Good board for one person is to be paid for with from 16 to 25 thalers per month. Washing, light and fuel may amount to 40 thalers per year, and for service an outlay of about 6 or 8 thalers per year be necessary. Taking the average of the above sums this will bring us per year to about 357 thalers per year, or at an average of 30 thalers per month.

If the pupil is a student at the Conservatory this will require another sum of 84 thalers per year for instruction at the Institute itself, and 50 or 100 thalers a year more if he or she take one or two *private lessons* per week with one of the Professors of the Conservatory, as *private lessons are not included in the above-mentioned payment of* 84 *thalers*, and 60 thalers for rent of grand piano. Expense for music and books during the year may amount to 15 thalers, so that a year's expense for musical education will cost from 200 to 250 thalers as the case may be. Total expense for board and lodging, musical education and extras, at an average of 650 thalers, equal to about $530. This sum, it is true, is a little higher than my first estimate which I had made in America on the *foundation of statements in the Prospectus of the Conservatory.* These statements, however, as other statements contained in the document, were wrong, and I shall take the necessary steps to have all misrepresentations contained in the Prospectus corrected, before a copy is sent again to America.

Which is the Best Way for Pupils from America to Procure Money in Germany?

For the purpose of defraying expenses on board the steamer with which you come to Europe, it is well to provide yourself with the necessary amount of American gold—best of all 2½ dollar pieces. You will need some money on board the steamer for extras in the line of refreshments, some money for fees of steward or stewardess, fare from the landing place to Leipzig, etc.; in all these cases these beautiful and handy little 2½ dollar pieces are splendid. You will receive for one dollar in gold 110, 111 or 112 cents (according to the notation of gold in New York), eighty-two of which are about equal to one Prussian thaler. The thaler has thirty new groschen, and the fractional pieces of such thaler (pronounced taler) are in silver: 20 groschen pieces (marked 1 Florin), 10, 5, 2½ and 1 groschen pieces; in copper: 5 pfennige, 3, 2 and 1 pfennig pieces, ten of which are equal to one groschen. If you travel on a Bremen steamer and receive Bremen money in change, be sure to dispose of it before you leave Bremen, as you will be unable to dispose of it afterwards. Twenty-five to thirty dollars in gold will be all that is necessary for the above mentioned purposes; it is therefore advisable not to carry any more ready money with you, provided that you avoid all unnecessary expenditures on board the steamer, to which may be reckoned contributions for the crew, donations to the physician, etc., as I hold that the Company should pay their employées sufficiently to make these impositions (in both meanings of the word) unnecessary.

To cover your expenses in Germany, you will do well to provide yourself with a *Letter of Credit*. This is done in the following manner:—Apply at the bank of your place of residence for a Letter of Credit from a banking-house in New York city to a banking-house in any large city in Germany, for the amount you intend to spend during a year's sojourn in such a place. This letter of credit you carry with you, and present it at the office of the German banking-house whenever you wish to draw money. For each sum you draw you sign your name, and if the whole amount named in the letter of credit is drawn, you give it up and it is sent back to where it was issued. The sum of money which you received by this operation is then refunded to the banking-house, together with interest, if the amount has not been refunded previously. This is the safest and most convenient way for American students of procuring the necessary means during their sojourning abroad.

Abstract from the Prospectus of the Conservatory of Music at Leipzig.

§ 1. The Theoretical Instruction consists of a complete course of the Theory of Music and Composition, completed in three years. (Ladies in two years.)

§ 2. Practical Instruction consists in instruction in Singing (solo and choral), in Piano playing, Organ, Violin, Viola, Violincello, Declamation, practice in public performances. (Instruction in other orchestral instruments, if required.)

§ 3. The Gewandhaus Concerts, quartet and chamber music concerts, church music performed by the choir of the St. Thomas Church and the Opera, give opportunity for further musical education.

§ 4. No pupil is admitted for less than one year.

§ 5. Pupils from abroad can enter the Conservatory at any time.

§ 6. To be admitted, the following qualifications are demanded: *a.* Sufficient general education. *b.* Ability to understand a lecture in German. (Those who are not able to do this may be admitted, but remain excluded from the instruction in Theory, etc). *c.* Musical talent and knowledge of theoretical rudiments. (Foreigners have to bring testimonies of former teachers). *d.* For solo singing, good and cultivable voice. *e.* Pupils under age present permission of parents or guardians to enter the Conservatory. *f.* Foreign pupils must possess passports or other legitimation.

§ 7. Before admission applicants are examined. They may play or sing pieces which they have studied. If the applicant has attempted composition, some work has to be sent to the President previous to examination.

§ 8. Pupils of the Conservatory have to live according to a Code of Disciplinary Rules, and oblige themselves to do so before admission by solemn pledge.

§ 9. Three months' notice is required before leaving the Conservatory, which can take place only at Easter and Michaelmas.

§ 10. Private and public examinations of the pupils take place every six months.

§ 11. All pupils dismissed in legal form receive testimonial of the Institute.

§ 12. The fee for the whole course of instruction (except upon extra orchestral instruments) is 80 thalers a year; paid in advance in quarterly instalments, at Easter, Midsummer, Michaelmas and Christmas. (Pupils who enter between these specified times, pay for the unexpired part of the running quarter and the whole next quarter in advance).

§ 13. In addition to the fee of 80 thalers, each pupil pays 3 thalers admission fee once for all, and one thaler annually to the Institute diener (Janitor).

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To be signed by the Parent or Guardian of a pupil applying for admission into the Conservatory:

I, the undersigned, declare herewith:

1. That my [son, daughter, or ward] *N. N.* is to study with my permission in the Conservatory of Music at Leipzig, from the of this year.
2. That I will pay to the Directory of the Conservatory the sum of eighty thalers a year, payable in advance by instalments of three months, and that, if my [son, daughter, or ward] should leave the Conservatory before the end of the first year, from any other cause than illness (which is to be certified by a physician), I nevertheless bind myself to pay the sum for a whole year.
3. That I will provide for the sustenance of my [son, daughter, or ward], during the time to his [her] stay at the Conservatory as well as for the hire of a pianoforte, and all necessary musical instruments and works which he [she] may require.

.....the.....18

(*Signature*).....

(L.S.)

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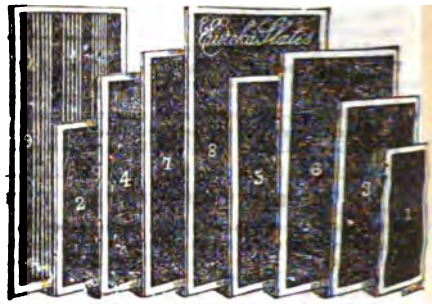

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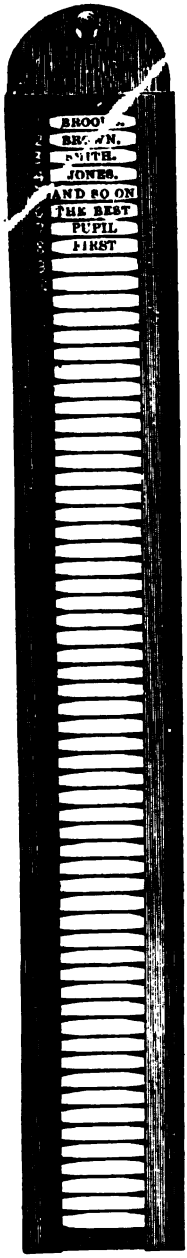

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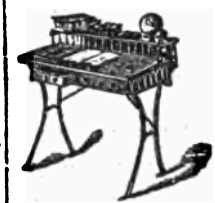

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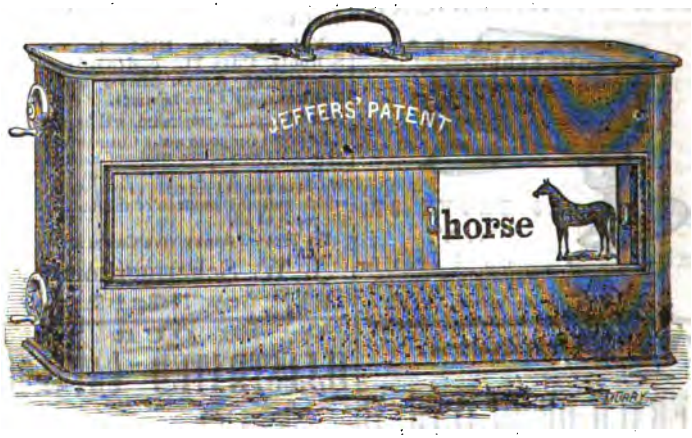

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AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

NOVEMBER, 1871.

AN AUTUMN STROLL.

WE find it strange that an American poet should have set his lyre to a doleful key in singing of our American Autumn. And, stranger still, that he should have made so sad a song about her in the days of his youth, since, to the boyish mind, no season of the year is, in general, more delightful. To us, at least, as we look back upon them, those were not melancholy days, nor the saddest of the year, that linked summer to winter by hours as soft and sunny as our climate brings us in October and November.

There are days, perhaps, in the later Autumn, when melancholy thoughts may come naturally into the mind, but, to the healthy spirit, there is no room for them in this gay, October pageant, when Nature crowns the year with beauty and plenty, and heaps into man's bosom all her richest gifts. The latest theory of the brilliant coloring of the leaves in Autumn is, that it is the sign of their full ripening, the same as it is with the pear, the apple, the peach, or any fruit, and it would seem as if prodigal Nature were not satisfied with the painting she has bestowed on the apple's cheek, as if the gold of the Bartlett pear, or the tawny scarlet of the Louise Boune, did not enough express

the fullness of her generous feelings, and she must teach the leaves to hint the overflowing bounty to whose full display her resources are not equal. This explanation of the coloring of the leaves—and why, if, as botanists assert, every fruit is merely a perfected leaf, should not the reason for the change of color in each be the same?—suggests to the croaker the sad deduction that, in Eden, every leaf on the autumnal trees set into a perfect fruit, and the plant thus fulfilled its destiny, while, in our degenerate times, the vast majority of leaves are no longer capable of such virtue, but, conscious of their deficiency, have only power to blush, and die. The hopeful man, on the contrary, the man of the future, declares with energy that in the boasted Eden were only crabs, else Eve would not have perilled so much for a single pippin; and that, little by little, the leaves, stirred in their sap with the fine instinct of a brighter day, made themselves pears and apples, thus setting an example to their race that successive generations have nobly followed, and will go on following, until the lost, imaginary Eden of the croaker shall indeed come true.

We so easily lose the impression made upon our minds by the seasons as they pass, that it is no wonder if each October is pronounced more splendid than its predecessor. Probably there is little difference between them, and a close observer will find the picture in any well-known haunt but slightly changed, from year to year, either in the disposition of the colors or in their beauty and intensity. One might as well argue a great difference in the colors of the apples of successive years. On the whole, Nature, like other artists, does not much vary her way of setting her pallette. In her million years, or so, of experience on this little planet of ours, she has learned to please her own eye, and to satisfy her own exacting taste. She does not like experiment, and we may believe that the next million Octobers will look the same as the last have done to all the eyes that are as yet unborn.

Far better than any novelty in the woods is the renewing, every year, the friendships of the year before; the finding of the same flowers in the old places; the seeing this hacmatack glow, each new October, with the same rose-scarlet

hat we have known for a dozen years; the watching this magnificent ash turn slowly from its glad, bright, green, to gold that ever deepens and deepens until it seems as if, out of its vast tent of branches all the garnered sunsets of the summer were streaming to make night forevermore impossible and forgotten. When we stand under this maple in the Spring, thick set all over with flowers for leaves and with a bee for every flower, the heart leaps out as to a dear friend come back to life after a well nigh mortal sickness, but, in October, when, like Elisha, it prepares to depart in a chariot of fire, we no less recognize a well-remembered friend. Yes, Nature is a steady dame, who loves the old ways, and having set her house in order, has no desire for change. The flowers, no less than the trees, are constant, and we walk along these leafy wood-streets with no fear that the sweet-faced inhabitants will have "moved," as fickle and inconstant men are so fond of doing. We know where, in the Spring, to find the flowers as they come: the earliest dog-tooth violets, the anemones and hepaticas, blood-root, and trilium, and little-boys, columbine and mitella; we go straight to their houses and are sure to see them looking out at the windows. And, so, in Autumn, the gerardias, and chelones, and touch-me-nots, the ladies'-tresses, and bottle-gentians, and lobelias, blue and scarlet, keep their places and greet us again with their perpetual and unchanging youth. The fringed-gentian is another forever recurring delight, and lends the same charm to Autumn that the violet does to Spring. It is the most delicate and poetical of all the flowers of the season, as beautiful in form as in color, and looks the very spirit of the dying year. We observe in the gentians how true the different varieties are in their habits to a certain type which, in some one, appears in full perfection. Thus, the bottle-gentian never opens its close-shut buds, and the fringed-gentian has a wilful way of closing its flowers soon after they have been gathered. If the flowers are set in the sun, they will open; removed to the shade, they close and remain so. Is the bottle-gentian aiming to be an open flower some day, or is the fringed-gentian trying, through long ages, to close itself and be a bottle-gentian? It should

seem that the open flower must be the more perfect the two.

One word more about this loveliest of our autumnal wild flowers. Although, generally, a shy bloomer, often not to be found at all, in places where there would seem to be no reason for its refusing to appear, it sometimes grows profusely, and the fields about Stockbridge and Lenox, in Massachusetts, are made as blue, with its flowers, in October, as they are made yellow, with the dandelion, in the Spring. Here, in our neighborhood (Irvington-on-Hudson), they were thought not to be native, but walking along a road leading over the hills to the valley of the Nepperhan, we caught the glance of a blue eye from between its fringed lashes, and pouncing down upon the prize, saw there were two, close behind this last, a third, and behind that, as Emerson says of the weeds in the scholar's garden, four thousand and one. They grew, and grow again this Autumn, most abundantly and largest at the very edge of a wood which bounds a lately cleared field, and the delicate flower seems to like most to push up between the tangled brush, and to bloom triumphantly above the thorns, reminding me of Giotto's personification of Poverty.

In October the butterflies are nearly all gone to wherever butterflies go. The small yellow ones that are seen through the summer in such numbers hovering about moist places in the roads, are represented by a straggler here and there, and yesterday, Oct. 27th, a large purple-black one was found in a numb state in the early morning, hanging to the gilly-flowers. We brought him in, and the warmth of the room soon revived him, and after playing with him a while, and pleasing ourselves with admiring the color-design of his wings and unwinding his lithe proboscis gently with a pin to measure its length, we opened the window and let him go. He soared about in the warm sun a few seconds, and then, flying down upon the gilly-flower again, proceeded to eat his breakfast with an appetite.

A discovery that has pleased us a good deal of late is of a creeping insect, neither worm nor beetle, but a delicate contrivance of their armor-plates, with a slender, pretty head, and six legs, that walks about in the grass with a brilliant

light in the end of his tail, on the under side, which he can turn on or off as he happens to fancy. In September we found one at the sea-side, and another was caught after we had been so foolish as to come away. Of late, we have found them again, and, walking out, a week ago, on a pleasant, drizzly evening, it seemed as if they must be holding a meeting, for, between us and Dobbs, there were at least thirty. We brought two of them home with us, and they are at present illuminating our garden without having put us to the expense of a meter, nor having, as yet, sent us in a monthly bill. And they give sufficient light to read by, if you get enough of them, which is more than can be said of the gas the company furnishes. We should like to know the creature's name; he is not to be found in any book we have at hand.

We had been mourning lately over the decay of live snakes in this region, no wood-walk being worth anything in our estimation unless one at least is met with, when we came across a very fine black snake, who had obligingly stretched himself from one side of the path to the other, and was sticking his tongue out at us in the friendly way which is the serpentine substitute for shaking hands. Soon after, we had the pleasure of seeing two garter snakes, and also a first-class adder with a most elegant blunt tail and a head of uncommon flatness. This flatness was partly owing to a large stone which some boys had banged down on the innocent creature, thereby putting an end to his beautiful contortions. Is not the almost universal antipathy to snakes an unexplained phenomenon? Is there any other animal to which all sorts of people, young and old, men and women, boys and girls, feel such a repulsion?

Are snakes really found in greater numbers, as a rule, at this season, or is it by mere accident that, having seen none all summer, we should, of late, have found them, either alive or boyed, in every visit we have made to the woods? Perhaps their food is now getting scarce, and they have to go in search of it? Perhaps, the days growing cooler, they are tempted out into the open roads and paths where the sun lies warm?

Our hill-sides are great haunts for turtles. We find them

very frequently, and what surprises us a good deal is, the number of dead ones, and of their shells and bones that are met with. Last autumn we found a turtle which had been, by some means, turned over on his back, and, not having been able to recover himself, had resigned himself to his fate, drawn in his banner from the outward walls—his legs, head and tail—arranged himself with decorum, and shutting his shell tightly all round, had died, and made no sign. Decay had done its work, and when we lighted on him we found ourselves possessed of the entire skeleton, in a neat little box covered with "real tortoise-shell!" Not a bone is missing down to the very small ones of the toes.

We are apt to think that animals lead a sort of ideal existence, and that, apart from their being made the prey of other animals, they have no evils mingled in their cup of pleasure. But they have disease and sickness as we have. They even have the tooth-ache, at least it has been concluded so, in certain cases from an examination of the teeth after death, and in looking over heaps of bones we sometimes come upon plain proofs of suffering afforded by ribs that have been broken and self-healed, though badly joined; of bones of the leg in the same plight. It is said that animals are also particularly liable to consumption and to marasmus. They are, also, run over by locomotives, just as human beings are. We recently held an inquest over a muskrat which had been cut nearly in halves by the engine wheels, as, with the usual fool-hardiness of Americans, he was trying to cross the track in front of the express train. We spent a pleasant instructive half-hour in studying his insides, neatly and effectually displayed.

We have never been so fortunate as to see a turtle eating anything, but a friend of ours watched one for some time a week ago, eating a mole. His attention was attracted by the snapping sound made by his jaws and beak. The turtle held the mole with his stout beak, and tore off the flesh from the bones with his powerful feet. How did this slow creature manage to catch the other slow creature? He probably came upon him when he was asleep.

But we are not writing a chapter of Natural History, for which, indeed, we are by no means competent. We began

with wishing to say a good word for October, but this is, no doubt, superfluous. The farmer who, in the month that has just ended, has harvested or stacked his ample yield of corn; who has shaken the apples off trees glad to be relieved of their rosy children, and to have a time for rest; who has rolled his golden pumpkins into heaps, and carried them to the cellar to make the Winter glad with pies—glorious fruit, putting the orange to open shame!—who sees his bins bursting with carrots and beets, parsnips and onions, turnips and potatoes;—needs no call from us to praise October! And the boy who spends his happiest days under the chestnut and walnut trees, or in them, with his serviceable stick, or who snatches a fearful joy in other people's orchards, a joy only made less than perfect by the insufficiency of his pockets to hold all that he would like to steal, or who comes home exulting with a rabbit snared or trapped, or with his first bunch of cedar-birds, the spoil of his brother's gun "borrowed" in his absence, unbeknown; he, too, will think we have said too little in praise of "the merriest month of all the year."

CLARENCE COOK.

MODEL COMPOSITION.—The Essex *Statesman* says a boy in South Danvers wrote the following composition upon his native town, which it thinks is very good for a school-boy:—

South Danvers is in the United States. It is bounded by Salem and reaches to Middleton. Its principal river is Goldthwaite's brook, which empties into Salem Harbor. Its principal lake is the mill pond, which is dry in summer. Its principal productions are leather, onions, South Church, and Geo. Peabody. South Danvers has many religious sects, among which are the Orthodox, who worship the minister, the Spiritualists, who worship everything, and the Unitarians, who worship nothing.

THE Chicago Board of Education has decided to pay school teachers according to the service they render, without regard to sex.

A GLANCE AT THE SCHOOL-BOOK QUESTION.

THE days of the good old text-books were beneficent ones for earnest learners and apt teachers. The productions of the old masters, prominent among whom were Daboll, Lindley Murray and Noah Webster, were simple, true, compact, and singularly free from individualisms. In the hands of competent instructors, their books made better average scholars, time and other appliances considered, than graduate from our public schools in these boastful days of progress. The pupils of a half century ago were made to deal with essentials, and they were drilled upon these, until they gave the clearest evidences of mastery. It was not their lot to be tossed about upon a sea of limitless technicality, driven hither and thither, to their inextricable confusion, by fitful blasts of so-called methodizing. The tasks given them to accomplish, excepting, probably, over-memorizing, involved plain and proper plodding, having for its object "the grounding" of the pupils in the elementary departments of knowledge, which object, literally construed, must hold now, and indeed for all time.

It is really questionable whether in the matter of text-books, we have not fallen upon degenerate times. That we have so wide a variety of books, written up ostensibly to render the *methods* of certain popular educators available for general use, however much it may serve to enrich teachers' knowledge of teaching, does not prove advantageous to young learners. The use of such productions constitutes an element of disorder in our systems of public instruction; for they are generally more faithful in portraiture of the foibles and eccentricities of authors, than in a clear unfolding of the sciences which they profess to develop. Many of these books are fitting accompaniments of the multifarious quack nostrums of the day. For instance, a fourteen weeks' course in mastery of a branch of the higher learning, is no more nor less an impossibility than ærial travel in a steam car. Fourteen weeks at best can afford time scarcely for a prosperous beginning. In the same rank, must be 'aced those pretentious publications, which teach grammar

by a system of cleverly-devised diagrams, and the geography of the continents by complicated and awkward triangulations. Yet our teachers are battering away at developing brains with these modern tools, half-believing that the "royal road" is found at last; and, after a long-drawn, and sickly effort, involving self-representation in the effort to occupy the authors' ground of method, the results are lamentably meagre in proportion to the energies expended.

It would appear that the experiences of intelligent teachers, related as all experiences are, their lessons gathering in a volume of common wisdom would affect radical changes in the method of preparing text-books. The time assuredly must come when they will be compiled in accordance with well recognized principles, and not suffered, in any degree, to reflect the fancies and idiosyncrasies of their authors.

As a help, the text-book certainly occupies an important office in the work of instruction, and has therefore a certain definite value. An important, even indispensable auxiliary, it is nevertheless but negative in its relations to teaching and illustration. A book, be it ever so excellent, cannot usurp the office of the teacher. Though it be an unfolding of a given science, and embody the "presentation of its principles" after the method of the most successful masters, it will be valueless to the learner because of its embarrassing details, and of doubtful utility to the skillful teacher. The very general dissatisfaction with many of the current series of arithmetics arises from this cause. There are few that really treat arithmetic as a special department of mathematical study, requiring a progressive development of its formulæ, processes and principles. On the other hand, nearly all authors, in connection with arithmetic proper, introduce special formulæ, analysis, and peculiar plans of their own invention, which being serviceable in their own teaching, they believe valuable to teachers and pupils in general. In this manner, their books become cumbersome both in size and text, and prove quite as embarrassing in their manifold details to teachers as to those taught.

This disposition to burden text-books with specialties is noticeably prevalent among the later compilers of geographies. Their books and charts are worthy enough to

find place in the instructor's library; but, after an attentive experience, the writer does not hesitate to affirm that triangulations for children are a failure, the sketching of the continents by their use costing in time and pains incommensurately with the good gained. Guyot's series would have occupied the whole field of our needs, had the superior instructor who arranged the text, forgotten for the time her own plan of presenting the matter to classes, and given in clear and comprehensive statement, the essential geographical facts.

In grammar, however, more than in anything else, the foregoing objections apply. That an instructor be remarkably successful in teaching grammar does not *per se* indicate that it is within the scope of his ability to produce a work which is at once the science of grammar, and method of teaching it, whose use under the direction of others will be found serviceable and satisfactory. It is too common a mistake of authors in this department of learning, to weigh down their writings with that which is merely incident to their teaching or study, burdening nearly every topic with technicalities and peculiar modes of illustration, which may have been of greatest value to themselves, but which in our schools are too often mistaken for essentials while the principles of vital importance are neglected. The systems of analysis and of diagrams, now so much in vogue, loaded as they are with forms and names, are but *means* at best; still in many instances, they are also regarded as *ends*, thus ignoring the laws which regulate the use of the parts of speech. Instruction in English grammar by such means degenerates into a farce.

It is time this method of preparing books for pupils were abandoned. Mechanically man may be a good imitator, but he cannot exert the peculiar influence of another, nor enforce truths with the same quality and degree of enthusiasm. In all true action, the philosophers tell us, the outward manifestations in act and speech, with their mysterious power to excite the emotions, are always faithful indices of the feelings and energies of inner life. Wherefore the proposition is also true that in all professional labor, the largest individual success is achieved—not by ignoring one's own

intuitions—not by the attempted exclusive use of others' skill, but rather by faithful reliance upon, and vigorous use of the individual energies, endowing every effort with the enthusiasm, intensity and breadth in full measure of the individual capacities. Accordingly instruction is perfect only when the instructor is master of the subject to be taught, developing plans and illustrations as their need is manifested; thus outbearing to the taught the inspiration which elevates to a plane of broader sight, wider comprehension and larger faith. Teaching is ever a co-operative work, which cannot be regulated by fixed methods and patents. Its processes are naturally as varied as the temperaments and needs of human beings. If the instructor teach well, he must "act out himself," always possessing the power as a tactician to simplify, analyze, and illustrate, not in one given way for each subject, but in many ways as necessities may demand. His knowledge of methods, and of the peculiar manner of teaching employed by distinguished instructors, cannot be too extended. Let it come to him, however, not from the text-books which the pupils use, but from discussions, magazines and works on instruction. It is a great mistake to presume that the teachers' and pupils' needs are the same. The books which the teacher places in the pupils' hands should embody the subjects to be studied in plain and terse statement, leaving artificial and miscellaneous means of helping learners to be brought out as they may serve by the use of his own ingenuity and judgment. He is a dullard, who having prepared himself for this vocation by the study of the multifarious details which pertain to school management, as well as by the thoughtful consideration of the so-called methods of teaching, still so far distrusts himself, as to attempt a rigid copying after another's special mode of labor, requiring from books, those remarks and illustrations which it is pre-eminently his duty to furnish. Such a proceeding discloses a character too negative for the presiding genius of the school-room. Imitators of this class are without character and lifeless; their work inevitably degenerating into the drudgery of an ever narrowing routine.

The present epoch of tergiversations in school-book litera-

ture will soon, let us hope, be succeeded by one of rationalism. If the necessities of the present could find voice, there would go forth the appeal: Wanted, a Geography—not dwarfed by labored delineations of map-drawing systems, nor by bungling, illogical sub-divisions—but combining with an excellent series of attractive, descriptive and physical maps, a text furnishing a consecutive arrangement of essential, comprehensive and clearly presented geographical facts; an Arithmetic, concise in its definitions, lucid in its statement of principles, systematic in its arrangement of topics, and judicious in its selection of examples; and above all else, a Grammar not compiled with the purpose of exhibiting an author's erudition, or of developing new and before unthought of methods in accordance with the notions of a morbid theorist, nor introducing propositions and technicalities to the end of "upbuilding" the science; but treating the properties of the parts of speech in terse and simple phrase; full, exact, rigid, yet compact, in its treatment of syntactical construction; exceptional in its rules and examples; and in masterly development of all its parts, making name and formula subsidiary to that most desirable consummation—furnishing the learner that knowledge which will make him to use his mother tongue with correctness and propriety.

CONROY.

A QUAINT LETTER.—A boy who accompanied his mother to the country, for the usual summer rustication, sent to his father the following quaint epistle:

"*Dear Pa*"—Things are bully here. I chase ground squirrels every day in what they call the glen. Yesterday I saw one coming out of an old stump, which he didn't think was safe for him, making for the rocks. I put straight after him, you bet. While I was running close by the creek Bill put out his feet and tripped me up. I went plump into the water and got my breeches soaking wet. The squirrel went on to the rocks. When we got back to the hotel ma licked us both. I think she is getting too tight on us. I wish you'd come and help us out. Your affectionate son,

R. F. S.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?—VII.

THE SCIENCE OF SOCIETY.

YET one more science have we to note as bearing directly on industrial success—the Science of Society. Without knowing it, men who daily look at the state of the money-market, glance over prices current, discuss the probable crops of corn, cotton, sugar, wool, silk, weigh the chances of war, and from all those data decide on their mercantile operations, are students of social science: empirical and blundering students it may be; but still, students who gain the prizes or are plucked of their profits, according as they do or do not reach the right conclusion. Not only the manufacturer and the merchant must guide their transactions by calculations of supply and demand, based on numerous facts, and tacitly recognising sundry general principles of social action; but even the retailer must do the like: his prosperity very greatly depending upon the correctness of his judgments respecting the future wholesale prices and the future rates of consumption. Manifestly, all who take part in the entangled commercial activities of a community, are vitally interested in understanding the laws according to which those activities vary.

Thus, to all such as are occupied in the production, exchange, or distribution of commodities, acquaintance with science in some of its departments, is of fundamental importance. Whoever is immediately or remotely implicated in any form of industry (and few are not) has a direct interest in understanding something of the mathematical, physical, and chemical properties of things; perhaps, also, has a direct interest in biology; and certainly has in sociology. Whether he does or does not succeed well in that indirect self-preservation which we call getting a good livelihood, depends in a great degree on his knowledge of one or more of these sciences: not, it may be, a rational knowledge; but still a knowledge, though empirical. For what we call learning a business, really implies learning the science involved in it; though not perhaps under the name

of science. And hence a grounding in science is of great importance, both because it prepares for all this, and because rational knowledge has an immense superiority over empirical knowledge. Moreover, not only is it that scientific culture is requisite for each, that he may understand the *how* and the *why* of the things and processes with which he is concerned as maker or distributor; but it is often of much moment that he should understand the *how* and the *why* of various other things and processes. In this age of joint-stock undertakings, nearly every man above the laborer is interested as capitalist in some other occupation than his own; and, as thus interested, his profit or loss often depends on his knowledge of the sciences bearing on this other occupation. Here is a mine, in the sinking of which many shareholders ruined themselves, from not knowing that a certain fossil belonged to the old red sandstone, below which no coal is found. Not many years ago, 20,000*l.* was lost in the prosecution of a scheme for collecting the alcohol that distils from bread in baking: all of which would have been saved to the subscribers, had they known that less than a hundredth part by weight of the flour is changed in fermentation. Numerous attempts have been made to construct electro-magnetic engines, in the hope of superseding steam; but had those who supplied the money, understood the general law of the correlation and equivalence of forces, they might have had better balances at their bankers. Daily are men induced to aid in carrying out inventions which a mere tyro in science could show to be futile. Scarcely a locality but has its history of fortunes thrown away over some impossible project.

And if already the loss from want of science is so frequent and so great, still greater and more frequent will it be to those who hereafter lack science. Just as fast as productive processes become more scientific, which competition will inevitably make them do; and just as fast as joint-stock undertakings spread, which they certainly will,—so fast will scientific knowledge grow necessary to every one.

That which our school courses leave almost entirely out, we thus find to be that which most nearly concerns the business of life. All our industries would cease, were it not

for that information which men begin to acquire as they best may after their education is said to be finished. And were it not for this information, that has been from age to age accumulated and spread by unofficial means, these industries would never have existed. Had there been no teaching but such as is given in our public schools, England would now be what it was in feudal times. That increasing acquaintance with the laws of phenomena which has through successive ages enabled us to subjugate Nature to our needs, and in these days gives the common laborer comforts which a few centuries ago kings could not purchase, is scarcely in any degree owed to the appointed means of instructing our youth. The vital knowledge—that by which we have grown as a nation to what we are, and which now underlies our whole existence, is a knowledge that has got itself taught in nooks and corners; while the ordained agencies for teaching have been mumbling little else but dead formulas.—*Herbert Spencer.*

NICKED STICKS.

"I winna say ony ill of this Monkbarns, said Mrs. Shortcake; only that he was in an unco kippage when we sent him a book instead of the nick-sticks, whilk, he said, were the true ancient way of reckoning between tradesmen and customers; and sae they are, na doubt."—SCOTT'S ANTIQUARY.

THE simple deem that they complete their education in six or eight years; but the wise question whether theirs is terminated, even by death.

THE Bee builds her house well, but she has not improved upon it since A. M. 1. With us, Adam's dirt pie has been succeeded by Michael Angelo's St. Peters. In all probability the former saw less reason to be dissatisfied with his effort, than the latter did, when he contemplated the defects in his finished cathedral. The reason why Michael Angelo improved upon Adam was, because he had been

studying architecture six thousand years. He had been to school for the term of the world's life. Two ideas may be gleaned from the above statements; one is—"that the school-house of the present, is the store-house of the past;" the other—"that bricks and mortar are books used in the education of a mason."

MAN is a complex animal. For educational purposes we should read him under three heads—physical, intellectual, and moral. Three hours physical, three hours intellectual, and two hours moral instruction, properly interspersed, would fatigue a child far less than five hours consecutive intellectual labor.

IF attendance on our Public Schools was compulsory throughout the Union, the future lives of the scholars might thus be portrayed. One-third soil-tillers and miners; one-third mechanics and artizans; and one-third distributors, politicians, money-changers and idlers. The requirements of the last section are well attended to in our present school system; but the best interests of the nation are sadly sacrificed by our neglecting to develop the productive capabilities of the two former classes.

THE question of the Bible in the schools has long been agitated in the community. In our City Schools there is another volume, which, it is believed, would rapidly and amply repay introduction; it is—"The Book of Nature." As it is too large to be placed in any library, it would be necessary to set apart a rood of land behind every school-house for its reception. With very little cost to our people, if properly cared for, it would be found newly bound in green velvet every Spring, and filled full with colored engravings throughout the Summer.

ALEXANDER POPE says, "The proper study of mankind is man;" but it is questionable whether he limited his meaning to a "dead" man. As a general rule children like man as the Jewess is reputed to have liked the forbidden veal, viz., "with the skin on." Three children are called on to recite a lesson on the venous system—"illustrated." Tom likes

the study and improves accordingly; Dick finds mischief, not only in what is presented, but by fancifully supplying what is suppressed; while Harry is simply horrified. This proceeding suits Tom, but it is hard to distort Dick and Harry by stretching them out on this physiological "Bed of Procrustes."

EDUCATION enters the mind through the gates of the senses. It is commenced very early, many children requiring to be taught even to nurse. Remembering that James Watt commenced the study of Greek at the age of seventy, it would be difficult to fix a period at which it terminates. As a general rule more lessons are learned outside than inside of our school-houses.

So many to rule; so many to farm; so many to manufacture; so many to buy and sell, and so many to serve; is or was the plan on which the British Empire has been built. Here all rule, with us; therefore, it is pre-eminently necessary that all should be taught to govern—first, themselves; and secondly—the Republic.

EXHIBIT to a child the many uses to which a simple study can be applied, and in nine cases out of ten, it will desire to be instructed therein. William Cobbet's little ones learned to write quickly; they found that they needed the art in order to correspond with their father, who was then imprisoned for a political offense. When the desire to learn it precedes the lesson, the battle is half won before it is commenced.

SCHOOLMASTERS are like sugar in one respect; viz., they have a recognized commercial value. At this season of the year (August), when, as sportsmen say, it is usual for us "to split and squander," our country cousins are apt to tell us—"*We have a first-rate teacher here, we secured him for much less than his real value.*" It may be so; but sometimes our country cousins are not competent judges of the excellencies of the article "School-teacher."

CHILDREN should be taught such things as they exhibit a

desire to learn. This little one wishes to draw; well, guide its efforts and point out its main defects. That strives to declaim; encourage it in the attempt; accept what is presented at first—afterwards gradually correct its errors. Follow nature; in Elocution, teachers sometimes learn a lesson while they are giving one. In making observations on gestures, etc., it would be well for instructors to remember Queen Katharine's advice to Wolsey—

> "My learned Lord Cardinal,
> Deliver all with charity."

R. W. HUME.

THE SONS OF PESTALOZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER XIV.—*Continued.*

The effect of these blustering invectives on the company may be easily imagined. When Bögendorf, instead of replying to all these charges, did nothing but groan, sometimes even uttering remarks of approbation, Assessor Behring, despite all hints and beckonings of his fair bride, could not longer control his anger. "Mr. Bögendorf," said he, "it is *your* duty to refute these charges."

"How can I?" replied the trimmer. "His Highness seems to be a friend of striking colors, but his remarks are substantially true, I regret to say. Only the suspicions thrown on the integrity of the government officers, and the imputation as if a lunch could divert them from their paths of duty, I must earnestly deprecate."

But the Prince was not at all awed by the grand language of the German bureaucrat. In his opinion, the air of importance and official gravity which Bögendorf, as all members of his caste, had habitually assumed, was nothing but as mask, and of a piece with the Graeco-Slavonic official sphere, which he knew was utterly rotten and corrupt. This view was fully confirmed by Bögendorf's replies

to Assessor Behring, who, with youthful enthusiasm, had undertaken to defend his beloved German literature from the aspersions of the foreign Prince.

"Why, gentlemen," said Bögendorf, "it is high time that the reading and expounding of our German classics in school should be managed in the same way as a sensible teacher will treat certain passages of the Scriptures. It is from this motive that our new school regulations, the much denounced 'School Modulative,'[1] this dearly bought result of long pedagogic experience, prohibit every pupil of a Normal School from privately reading any one of the German classics."

This clumsy and outrageous remark raised a storm of indignation among the company, and warm debates might have followed, had not the master of the house conjured the tempest by sounding his wine-glass with a knife. When silence was obtained, he made a short address, combining in a humorous way Mount Rigi with the outlawed German classics, and concluding with a toast to the two brides and their future husbands. The Prince, now, became the exact contrary of what might have been expected. He most cordially joined in the toast, and expressed to his neighbor, the mistress of the house, his unbounded admiration of her lovely nieces, all the while whisking his moustache, and twisting its ends with great relish. The light blood and natural levity of his nation led him easily from extreme to extreme. So it was with everything he was engaged in. His former denunciation of Schiller was now followed by enthusiastic quotations from Schiller's poems. If, perhaps, Staudner had now exposed and ridiculed the official outlawry of German classics, the Prince would as unhesitatingly have applauded him, as he had just applauded Bögendorf for endorsing the action of the government. Whoever made a brilliant or witty speech was sure to upset the most obstinately de-

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1 These regulations, which were issued in the reactionary times of Frederick William IV., subjected all instruction, public and private, to the strict surveillance of the government, and established obnoxious rules for the guidance of teachers. They minutely prescribed not only what should be taught in schools, but also how it should be taught. No text-book was to be used without a government license, and no license was ever given to books the authors of which were not well accredited with the government, or which contained passages unpalatable to the ruling powers. These regulations, which were called "*Schul Modulative*," have been abolished.—*Translator.*

fended opinions of the Prince, and drive him into the opposite camp, provided it was that of wit and success.

"What would you think," said Staudner drily to the Prince, "the new 'School-Modulative' has substituted for the private reading of the Normal scholars in place of the banished German classics? First, all writings of School Councillors; secondly, all publications of those houses that have published books of friends or relatives of the School Councillors; thirdly, the writings of those Professors or clergymen who have endorsed the 'School-Modulative.'"

"From which, I infer," said the Prince, "firstly, that out of three Germans at least one must be an author; secondly and thirdly, that attachment and devotion to one's friends and relatives is deemed a virtue not only in Roumania, but also in Germany."

The company rose from table, and while some adjourned to the park, some to the drawing-room, Staudner took Bögendorf aside, and asked him with apparent unconcern:

"Will you really permit that scandalous affair between the Prince and Nesselborn to take its own course?"

"Nesselborn is lost," was the answer. "The Prince has sworn his ruin. He is determined to bring the matter even before the King, if necessary. To-morrow he is going to state the case to the minister. Then the ministry must take action in the matter, and Nesselborn will be disgraced at least as to the character of his family—"

"After *your* certificates have endorsed him for three years?" interposed Staudner with scornful sarcasm.

"In this you are not well informed," protested the functionary of the school. "I have cautioned him over and over again. From the very beginning I judged that the managment of the institution would be beyond his strength. His family have ruined him. The things that have transpired in that place are positively shocking."

The disorder which had lately prevailed in the institution, and had excited the wrath of the Roumanian Prince to such a degree, had been chiefly committed by the two hopeful sons of the latter, but also by some of the young Russians, Americans, and sons of German noblemen, boarding in the house. These boys, some of whom were as old as eighteen,

by the large sums of money which improvident parents had placed at their disposition, had found the means of gradually loosening the restraints of discipline to which they were subjected in the institution. The offences committed by them were serious, indeed. It is true, earnest reprimands were administered, and even punishment had been repeatedly inflicted. But, nevertheless, disorder had been perpetually on the increase, owing partly to the natural wildness and even moral obliquity of the young men, which their former domestic training had failed to correct, partly to the utter weakness in the government of the institution, and to the absence of that high pressure from above which alone is able to keep together the different parts of the machine, and control its working forces from the instructors down to the servants. The difficulties with which the leader of the school was beset, had gradually swollen to a mountain, which he saw himself utterly unable to level. The governor of the young Roumanians had proved to be a bad subject whom it had become necessary to expel from the house; but he had remained in town, contriving to keep up his baleful influence on his wards. The teachers of the institution were, on the whole, upright and conscientious, but almost the whole train of servants, and the outside abettors of illicit intercourse with the town, were in conspiracy with such of the lads as spurned the rules of the school. Some of the most nefarious resorts of German schoolboys are the "confectioneries." These, and the "wine-rooms" were regularly visited by Nesselborn's pupils, the most positive prohibitions by the faculty to the contrary notwithstanding. The boys, also, were in the habit of "smoking" and carousing in their rooms. In the night they absented themselves, climbing over the walls, or descending by means of ropes from the windows. A watch-dog, which had interfered with their egress and ingress, had been poisoned by them. Pupils of the institution had even been seen in places which can hardly be mentioned by name. Debts had been contracted, and bills came in from tradespeople for commodities which had been furnished without authority. A complete system of "hushing up" had been inaugurated by the principal's wife and her two daughters—

the egg of a basilisk, out of which a progeny of monsters had been hatched. These girls, laboring under that feverish abhorrence of celibacy which young maidens (especially at the return of their anniversaries) are often subject to, would have been given to flirtation even if they had not imbibed the taste for it from their earliest youth, a taste accompanied by a total indifference to religious and moral principles. The remark has often been made that these principles have, sometimes, been found sadly deficient in the very homes of their expounders, as if the delicate edge of religious sentiment could be blunted by the daily sight of official routine. The two maids were soon in flirtation with the two Roumanian "princes." This was followed by a secret promise of marriage, and a reckless conduct utterly at variance with the prosperity of their father's school. Their own mother was privy to their mad course. Flattering herself that these semi-civilized youngsters, by prudent management, might be made to forget their own rank and position, she gladly seconded the wild schemes of her daughters, and was easily induced to connive at their appointments, and to approve of their accepting extravagant presents from the two young men. But at last the "old Prince" heard of the affair and of the dissolute conduct of his sons in general, which made him speedily repair to the metropolis in person He immediately took both his sons away from the institute, and placed them under the temporary care of some friends; but as they, even then, continued their intercourse with the Nesselborns, he resolved to make the whole condition of affairs known to the school authorities.

Mr. Bögendorf expatiated on many of these and some other facts which had come to his knowledge as to the mismanagement of Nesselborn's school. "All his feeble attempts at discipline," he said, "are neutralized by his perpetual dread of losing pupils. The gymnastic exercises have degenerated into a riding and rifle practice. A disgraced former cavalry officer—a bad subject—is in charge of the riding department, counteracting, by his profane language, all the good influences which conscientious teachers might bring to bear on the students. These teachers are

regularly entering the quarterly reports on the school journal, but their reports are tampered with, and the copies, coming to the hands of the parents, little resemble the originals. First, Nesselborn himself is in the habit of softening down the expressions of censure used by the teachers, and, next, the women will interfere, changing whatever censure there is left into 'hopeful expectations.'"

Bögendorf closed this sweeping denunciation of the whole institute with the remark that public opinion was decidedly against Nesselborn's school, and that Government was bound to respect public opinion.

The Doctor ironically re-echoed the words, "Bound to respect public opinion!"

"Why," he said, "you systematically *dis*respect public opinion, and when public opinion turns decidedly against a measure of yours, just from that very reason you will most strenuously uphold it! So it would be in this case if Nesselborn would but sound your trumpet."

"Come, come," said Bögendorf, "you do not know anything about that; come, let us return to the company."

"You are in close connection with this house," added Staudner; "do not forget that Nesselborn's ruin will render the mortgage of twenty thousand dollars, which the Fernaus have on his property, an extremely doubtful security."

"Why," said Bögendorf, "do you not know that Theodore Waldner, whom this very money was to banish from the eyes of the world, is in Nesselborn's house? This is indeed the working of Nemesis, or let us rather exclaim, 'Inscrutable are the ways of the Lord!'"

Staudner was struck with the justice of that remark, and replied nothing.

"I have yet to see the Prince," added Bögendorf, "on account of some governesses whom he is about to engage for the education of his daughters. He has solicited my advice."

"I understand," said Staudner, "that Gertrude Nesselborn is among the applicants. I hope you will not allow such an accomplished young lady to——."

"Why not?" replied Bögendorf; but his further remarks were cut short by the approach of some elderly ladies, who

were in the habit of consulting Mr. Bögendorf in regard to their spiritual wants. He immediately advanced towards them, leaving Staudner to his own meditations.

Before the latter left the company, he asked Prince Dmitri for permission to wait upon him next morning at 9 o'clock, having a subject of some importance to open to the Prince. But the Roumanian expressed his regret that he had at that very hour an audience with the Minister of Education.

"Then, I shall call at eight o'clock, your Highness," bluntly replied the Doctor. The Prince, whom this impertinent obtrusiveness had completely taken by surprise, assented mechanically, and the Doctor abruptly left, before the Prince had time to retract.

CHAPTER XV.

An elderly man, with the expression of despair on his face, was sitting in a garret-room before a plain deal table covered with books and papers. Both his hands were supporting his gray head. His eyes were wandering from the books before him to the wall, on which a large sheet of paper was fastened, containing the plan of recitations for the institution of which he was the head and owner.

Lienhard Nesselborn was now fifty years old, but his gray hair and his face made him appear, at least, ten years older. Blue veins stood out conspicuously on his emaciated hands. The wrinkles on his forehead were innumerable; his lips were so closely pressed together that they were almost invisible. His long hair fell in disorder down to the shoulders; the untied neckcloth hung loose over his black vest.

The scantily furnished chamber in which we find Nesselborn was not his study. That was a magnificent apartment on the first floor, furnished with morocco cushioned chairs, elegant tables, costly carpets, statues and busts of eminent authors and educators, and tasteful book-cases filled with the choicest volumes. The gloomy state of his mind had driven him from his study to the most secluded room now occupied by Theodore Waldner, who, with one of the older teachers was accompanying the boarders of

the institute on their Sunday afternoon walk in the outskirts of the city. The bareness and plainness of the room recalled to his memory the times when he himself had been happy in just such a narrow and scanty chamber, which had been a witness to the lofty projects and ideals of his younger years. But now this recollection gave him a pang of deepest woe. He thought of his humiliating interview with Prince Demetrius. Nesselborn had entreated the Prince not to divulge the cause which had induced the latter to withdraw his sons from the institution; but the Roumanian had snubbed him in an insolent tone, cursing the whole German nation; and their propensity to play "genius." With vulgar violence he had torn a drawer from his desk, taking from it the different bills which his sons had "run up" in town, to fabulous amounts. "I know," he had said, "your people consider us Roumanians as semi-barbarous. But there is more culture in Bucharest and Jassy than in all your large cities put together, where education is replaced either by breaking loose from time-honored traditions, or by that narrow bigotry which you call Christianity. Your programme says that your method of education is based on Christian morals. That is, indeed, a nice morality with which you have made me acquainted! It is a matter of conscience with me to expose the whole swindle!" The brute had applied the most vulgar epithets to Nesselborn's daughters, producing letters which disclosed their design to elope with the young princes, and thus to compel the parents of both parties to consent to their marriage. The reading of these letters aroused the fury of the Prince to such a pitch that he bade the unhappy old man leave the room.

Nesselborn's hopes seemed to be irretrievably blighted. He reviewed his whole past career. In his ministerial office he had never found that satisfaction and contentment which he had sought. There was a longing in him to educate rather the individual than the congregation. To observe and to rule the gradual growth of the human mind was the task to which an irresistible impulse was driving him. Is there any one who can recollect this gradual growing of his own mind? The recollections we have are those

of our plays, of our childish enjoyments and sufferings, of our errings and punishments. We may, indeed, retain the images of some of our teachers, of their defects and abilities; but of the successive expansion of our minds we know nothing. We do not remember what were our qualities, good or bad, when we were children; nor can we see any longer our writings and compositions of those years! The price would be high, indeed, which we would be willing to pay for the tasks and exercises written by us when we were fifteen years old. But all these phases and stages of the mind are present to the teacher. He sees them and compares them with the development of others. He knows exactly how our nature and dispositions differ from those of our classmates. And, while forming our characters, the teacher forms his own. How clearly defined is the distinction between teacher and teacher! Their tasks and daily duties are the same, and yet how different are their individualities! It had always the most exciting effect on Lienhard to compare Pestalozzi's disciples with one another. Some of them had come from the South, others from the North. The individualities of all these were defined by the most marked outlines; the one had a peculiar talent for figures, another for drawing, a third for languages, a fourth for geography; but everyone of the great master's sons filled his whole inmost soul with *his* science, and wrought out the master's sublime principles from his own point of view and to the measure of his own strength. Take any name out of the array of Pestalozzi's disciples and you have a great and commanding individuality.

Nesselborn had obtained great fame as one of Pestalozzi's disciples by his first steps in the education of Theodore Waldner. One of the rarest coincidents had allowed him to appropriate the education of that youth, and to connect his name not only with the discovery of a sensational crime, but also with an eminent success in carrying out an educational theory. The reports he had published on the first rays of intellect elicited from the soul of the foundling, had been devoured by the public. Every one of his observations had a peculiar charm not only for the educator, but for every thinking man, and for every philanthropist. It was

another fortunate incident that President Fernau, had relieved him from his charge. This was closely followed by the unparalleled success of his institute.

At the moment of leaving Prince Dmitri's room, when almost all his hopes were cruelly crushed, his school had reached the highest point of prosperity, in the opinion of the world. His last accounts had shown a handsome surplus over and above all expenses including the interest due to the Fernaus. From his interview with the prince he had staggered to his house, where he reported to his wife the unhappy results of his conversation. She replied with scornful laughter, which went deep in to his soul.

"What can he do against us?" she ejaculated with defiance. "Perhaps you will be refused the title of Professor for which you have applied. That will be all."

"You are mistaken," he said. "All fashionable people will withdraw their children from us. These princes alone have paid for all my assistant tutors. The government will revoke my license to fit my senior pupils for the University. Perhaps they will place a commissioner in the house. That our daughters must leave the house, is a matter of course."

"Oh! that we shall see!"

"How can you doubt it? What satisfaction do you think the minister will demand?

"We will have to sacrifice some teachers perhaps—old Krickeberg, for instance."

"How, that old man?"

"Are we in a position to feed invalids?"

"He is the best teacher in Algebra I have ever known."

"Wehrman may teach Algebra!"

"The most confused of all our teachers."

"But the most devoted and trustworthy," retorted she. "Our institute is not supported by the State."

"But it has promised to do more than any State institution!"

Mrs. Nesselborn merely exercised what she thought to be her privilege as a woman.

"Where are the girls?" asked Nesselborn.

"They are out to see Staudner."

"How can *he* help us, who is known to be a scoffer at religion. Bögendorf, indeed, could do much, if he wished.

But even he quietly has submitted to the rigid system which the minister seems to have borrowed from Spain or Rome, and it is clear that even I shall not be in favor before adopting and proclaiming in every programme the doctrine of hereditary sin and election by grace. How can I succeed if the students of my senior class are not admitted to examination for the University? Three times already my plans of instruction have been thoroughly remodelled. I cannot afford to engage the teachers demanded by the minister, and if I refuse. he will wipe out whole classes which will reduce the number of our scholars by fifty or sixty, the very number that pay the profits of the institution. The unlucky girls ought to have gone to Bögendorf."

"To Bögendorf?" replied Mrs. Nesselborn, "who hates them because they outdo his daughter Theophania."

Nesselborn had always despised this kind of woman's talk; but to-day he was silent. "Perhaps," he said, "I ought to have solicited President Fernau's intercession in my behalf, but I dislike to stir up the memory of bygone things, especially now that Waldner has returned to us. Heavens! what should I do if the Baron, his brother, would call for the money he has lent me?"

"He will do no such thing," remarked Mrs. Nesselborn, in a tone sounding like a threat. "And if our daughters must leave the house, I shall go with them." With these words she left the room to attend to the preparations for supper.

THE latest and best authority gives the population of the globe at 1,350,200,000. In America, 72,800,000; in Europe, 267,000,000; in Asia, 798,600,000; in Africa, 188,000,000; in Australia and Polynesia, 3,800,000. These people speak about 3,600 different languages, and are cut up into 1,000 different religious sects. The adherents of the principal religions, counting the whole population, are supposed to be nearly thus: Greek Church, 69,292,700; the six other Oriental Churches, 6,500,000; Roman Catholics, 195,000,000; Protestants, 98,139,000; Mohammedans, 160,000,000; Budhists, 340,000,000; other Asiatic religions, 260,000,000; Pagans, 200,000,000; Jews, 6,000,000.

ERRORS OF FACT IN TEXT-BOOKS.

ERRORS of fact may be found in nearly all school text-books. Sometimes the fault will consist in the misuse of a name. "In June, 1846, a treaty negotiated in Washington established parallel 49°, and the Strait of San Juan de Fuca as the separating line." (*Quackenbos.*) The slip in this sentence is rather amusing. Juan de Fuca was a bold Greek sailor, who distinguished himself by being the first to see that portion of our continent now included in Washington Territory. He was not at all a saint in the Romish sense of the word, and therefore the *San*, as above, is quite superfluous. "Their remonstrances being disregarded, they declared their independence of Mexico, and made ready to support it by force of arms. Volunteers from America hastened to their aid." In this extract (from the same source as the above) the name *America* is used, rather presumptuously, for *United States.* Morally, the names have about the same breadth, but not geographically. Other errors in text-books, however, which relate to matters of relationship, cause, and effect, etc., are more important. "At that time, Queen Anne's son, George, was monarch of England, and this contest was called King George's War." (*Lossing.*) The slip in this sentence is a magnificent one. George could scarcely have been the son of Anne, inasmuch as he not only belonged to a different royal family, but was five years her senior! Again, the following is an account of the town of Los Angeles: "The country there is so beautiful, and the air always so delightful, that the people who discovered it chose it at once for their dwelling-place, and called the town they built *Los Angeles*, which means the *dwelling-place of the angels.*" (*Guyot.*) The fact is, that the full name of the mission of Los Angeles is *La reyna de los Angeles*, which means *the queen of the angels*, referring, of course, to the Virgin Mary. It might seem that such errors would serve a good purpose in enabling the teacher to show that he had some knowledge of his subject, apart from the text-book in hand. But they serve a better purpose in enabling him to show a little of the grace of humil-

ity. He should correct faults, to be sure, but in the spirit of one who knows that to err is human; and who has sense enough to perceive how easy it is to fall into occasional errors while striving to accomplish a large work.

C. R. C.

THE ART OF THINKING.

ONE of the best modes of improving in the art of thinking is to think over some subject before you read it, and then to observe after what manner it has occurred to the mind of some great master. You will then observe whether you have been too rash or too timid, what you have exceeded, and by this process you will insensibly catch a great manner of viewing a question. It is right in study, not only to think whenever any extraordinary incident provokes you to think, but from time to time what has passed; to dwell upon it, and see what trains of thought voluntarily present themselves to the mind.

It is a most superior habit of some minds to refer all the particular truths which strike them to other truth more general, so that their knowledge is beautifully methodized; and the general truth at any time suggests all the particular exemplifications, or any particular exemplification at once leads to the general truth. This kind of understanding has an immense and decided superiority over those confused heads in which one fact is piled upon another without the least attempt at classification and arrangement.

Some men always read with a pen in their hand, and commit to paper any new thought which strikes them; others trust to chance for its re-appearance. Which of these is the best method in the conduct of the understanding must, I suppose, depend a great deal upon the peculiar understanding in question. Some men can do nothing without preparation; others little with it; some are fountains, others reservoirs.—*Sydney Smith.*

HOW SOIL WAS MADE.

PROFESSOR AGASSIZ says that all the materials on which agriculture depends are decomposed rocks, not so much rocks that underlie the soil, but those on the surface and brought from considerable distances, and ground to powder by the rasp of glaciers. Ice all over the continent is the agent that has ground out more soil than all other agencies put together. The penetration of water into the rocks, frost, running water and baking suns, have done something, but the glacier more. In a former age, the whole of the United States was covered with ice several thousand feet thick, and this ice moving from north to south by the attraction of tropical warmth or pressing weight of ice and snow behind, ground the rocks over which it passed into the paste we call the soil. These masses of ice can be tracked as surely as game is tracked by the hunter. He had made a study of them in this country, as far south as Alabama, but had observed the same phenomenon, particularly in Italy, where, among the Alps, glaciers are now in progress. The stones and rocks ground and polished by the glaciers, can easily be distinguished from those scratched by running water. The angular boulders found in the meadows and terraces of our rivers, not reached by water, can be accounted for in this way.

THE High School of Springfield, Ohio, graduated the young ladies of its last class in calico dresses, as pleasing to the eye of taste as to the hand of economy. This was brought about by the thoughtful suggestion of the superintenden and the hearty acquiescence of the girls themselves, on the only ground on which high schools can be long perpetuated, namely, that being supported by taxation they must be open to all classes in society and confer their advantages upon the poorest of their pupils, without prescription by fashion or creed, expenses or anything else.

TEACHERS' FAULTS.

EVERY class of men has its characteristic faults, which some other class will be friendly enough to point out, if it fails to discover them itself. Thus a writer speaks of the "conspicuous vice of the manufacturers and merchants of many countries," being "political cowardice." So a leading lawyer of San Francisco says: "The practice of the law sharpens the intellect, but narrows its powers of comprehension." So a champion of the doctors confesses that the supposition is extant, that "there is an intimate connection between medicine and unbelief." And so a somewhat severe editor observes, that "theologians, as a remark almost universally applicable, are utterly wanting in practical views or talents." Amid this torrent of compliments, teachers, of course, are by no means unfavored. This Christmas tree of mutual objurgation has its bon-bons for them as well as for others. For instance, the *Bulletin* of San Francisco remarked awhile since: "Most schoolmasters become martinets without knowing it. Accustomed to absolute authority within the school, they are impatient of advice or opposition from the world outside." And more recently the *Nation* of New York, has said: "A life-long teacher of boys who should be without arrogance, without conceit, without an impression that, in order to make himself understood, it is necessary to repeat himself emphatically and often, would present a very cheering example of man's ability to resist the natural influence of his surroundings." Two remarks may be made to any teacher as he reads such paragraphs. One is: many of our editors, critics, lawyers, etc., were once teachers; how painful to think, that in changing their business they have added the faults of new occupations to those of the old! Do not quit teaching. The other is in the words ascribed to Epictetus: "If any one speaks ill of thee, consider whether he hath truth on his side, and if so, reform thyself, that his censures may not affect thee."

C. R. C.

PRONUNCIATION, in order to be fully understood, four requisites are necessary. 1. A due degree of loudness of voice; 2. Distinctness; 3. Slowness; 4. Propriety of pronunciation.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A LETTER TO THE PUBLIC, ON CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN (AND OUT OF) THE SCHOOLS.

DEAR PUBLIC,—When Thomas Carlyle declared that we needed more of the drill-sergeant in our educational systems, he uttered a grave truth, one worthy the consideration of all governments, but more especially needful to those in which the sovereign power is vested in you. The cardinal lesson of mankind is the same now that it was in the Garden of Eden, viz: "the lesson of obedience." Many other studies may be neglected or rejected without much loss to communities, but, if we would have peace in our democracy, that must be practised constantly by every citizen in every phase of his or her life, and during the full term of his or her existence.

There are educators who assert that if "this lesson of obedience" is not inculcated in early youth it is never thoroughly mastered. Without fully endorsing that statement, it is certain that the earlier it is taught the easier it is learned. Mothers, who fulfill their maternal duties will admit, that the descendants of Adam, even in babyhood, often prove refractory like their respected progenitor; and it is believed, that an appeal to them on the subject of "Corporal Punishment" administered by themselves, would result in a unanimous verdict of approval, though probably a difference of opinion would be exhibited should the question embrace its infliction on any of their special charges by other hands than their own.

But suppose this duty to be only partially performed, or, as it really is in many cases totally neglected, what then is to be done? The mother's hand and the policeman's baton are both means to enforce the same end, viz: "obedience to the law." I have omitted to mention the teacher's ratan, because it is your will that it should be so omitted. But, clearly, the same sentimental feeling which protects the youth between the ages of five and fourteen years, should continue to defend him from the baton of the policeman.

The self-love which prevents the mother from enforcing infant obedience, and denies the use of the cane to the school master, should continue to shield the lad whom parental neglect of duty has rendered ungovernable, from the terrors of the law and the gaol. Alas! alas! it does not, it cannot. Our police records tell us that many thousands of such neglected youths are committed yearly to our prisons, to suffer the penalties consequent upon the sin of "omission of duty" committed by their parents.

But a few months have passed since a case was reported in the papers of a youth who was clubbed to death by a policeman. You were horrified, as you ought to have been, and the person who did the deed has since been arrested and punished. But many other such officers are similarly armed, and scarcely a day passes in which young men are not arrested, and in which the formidable locust is not more or less used. Are you satisfied that such legal "Corporal Punishments," in which you tacitly acquiesce, have not been often rendered necessary by your refusal to permit the ratan to be previously properly used in the Public Schools? Should such be the case, the crimes committed by such young malefactors ought to be laid to your charge, and you deservedly suffer in the persons of your children, for your ill-advised interference with the course of justice therein.

Again, our city Superintendent (Mr. Kiddle,) lately informed us that twenty-seven pupils had been suspended or expelled from the departments or schools he has lately visited. What do you purpose to do with these delinquents, that parents did not, and school-teachers (by moral suasion) could not reform? Remember, your will, expressed through a hundred channels, has, in all probability, brought them to the position in which they now stand. Will you abandon them now, or will you in their cases carry out your principle, and disarm policemen as well as school-teachers? You dare not! Have mercy then, for the future, and supersede the necessity for the use of the club by interposing that more merciful instrument, the cane, in the hands of the skillful school-teacher.

Pardon me, dear public, for addressing you on this important subject. I do so because you are in power on this

question. I know that any arguments in favor of the almost obsolete system of Solomon can hardly expect to find favor in your eyes. But there are many true, faithful, aye and loving teachers, who think with me, that you are in error. The quality of "mercy" is not all on your side. It is a dear article if you buy it at the cost of your children's welfare in after life. It is grandmother poisoning a child with candy in order to please herself. It is not kindness but cruelty. The child cries, the mother spares, and the little one conquers. No matter, the duty of enforcing attention to law devolves on the school-teacher. But your will has broken his arm. He now represents Justice without her sword. Not so with the magistrate, to whom the latter soon turns over his charges. He is armed and terrible. It is true it is hard to punish children because parents have neglected their duties, but there is no other remedy. Sooner or later, in childhood, youth, or manhood, the old—old—lesson must be enforced—it is "obedience to the law."

R. W. HUME.

STOCKBRIDGE, MASS.

MR. EDITOR—Answer to "Question to Philologists" in your October number, page 518.

The "famous hexameter" by "one of the Christian fathers" concerning Satan, "which is the same whether read from the beginning or from the end," is

Signa te, signa: temere me tangis et angis.

[For similar specimens of "learned trifling," with which the monks of the middle ages—Motto: "Quale vinum, tale Latinum"—used to while away their abundant leisure, such as Reversible Epigrams, Macaronic Verses, Anagrams, Puzzling Epitaphs, Punning Mottoes, etc., your querist is referred to an interesting collection of scraps, entitled *Milledulcia*, (published by D. Appleton & Co., N. Y., 1857).]

F. HOFFMANN.

SYRACUSE, 1871.

MR. EDITOR,—The little article on "Averseness to Learning Trades," in your monthly for April, is worthy of consideration.

The well-known scarcity of skilled laborers may undoubtedly be accounted for in a measure by the fact that many "foolish parents are ambitious that their sons should rise in the world as they say." But is there not another reason, hitherto but little recognized among us?

In all mechanic arts, a certain amount of time must be spent in acquiring not only knowledge of details as well as execution, before even tolerable work can be done. In most cases the time required is so great that it almost seems thrown away; for in some other business, labor might become at once productive. Parents know this, and see that the common school education, which their children have received, has fitted them better for business pursuits than for mechanic arts.

The education of our common school system is the education of the head neglecting the hand and eye. The advocates of the object system have recognized this defect, and are striving to correct it by giving a place to drawing as a regular means of development.

A systematic and thorough training of the hand and eye, commencing with free-hand drawing, is not at all impracticable in our public schools. It should begin with the primary department and be carried through all the various grades. There is no pursuit in life to which it will not be an acquisition, and eminently so to those who practice the mechanic arts. Habits of accurate observation and careful execution having been formed, work might be commenced almost at once, and many years of apprentice-ship would be unnecessary.

And here is another point. Is not the proportion of our mechanics, who become really skilled, very small? I think it is true that foreigners now do the great part of our skilled labor. This excellence of foreigners is undoubtedly due to the systematic and thorough training in drawing which they receive in their schools in Europe. In many of them more time is given to drawing than to any other single study. It

is given its place in their regular course not as an amusement or an accomplishment; but as a subject worthy of close and earnest application—not as a means of culture alone (although its importance in this direction cannot be overrated) but as part of the educational foundation. Students leaving school are ready to work not only with an enlightened mind, but with an eye trained to observe and a hand to execute. No botched work will satisfy, and they are not only able to see defects but to correct them.

Give, then, drawing its place in our courses of study, and you will find the pupils better fitted for any manual labor. I do not mean the drawing of pictures nor the copying of pictures, but a progressive course in free-hand drawing so arranged that the pupil may gain an idea of proportion both with and without relation to size. It is this last consideration which renders the system of Prof. Louis Bail superior to any other which I have seen. Let this be followed by mechanical, perspective and object drawing. Parents will soon see that their children are being prepared in some degree for mechanical labor as well as for business pursuits. And we shall soon be able to supply the demand for skilled labor from the pupils of American Schools.

MARY A. HICKS.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

MR. KERL'S "Comprehensive Grammar" (1861) secured to its author an acknowledged rank among the recognized teachers and critics of the English tongue. He is sometimes a little more fastidious than we care to be, but this niceness is the index of a fine linguistic sense—the one indispensable qualification of the grammarian. He should be *capable* of splitting hairs; we can forgive him, however, if he sometimes refrains from exercising this hair-splitting ability. Of Mr. Kerl's "Shorter Course in English Grammar" [1] this may be said: that it condenses much matter

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1 New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

into small space; that it furnishes an unusually large number of examples in false syntax, etc.; that it prefaces the "text course" with a very good introductory "oral course;" that the definitions are brief, yet for the most part sufficient; and that the whole work looks rather toward use and practice than theory. The arrangement of matters is new; some teachers will regard it as "mixed;" but we opine that the work will stand the only real test, that of the class-room. It is specially designed for schools in which but one text-book in this branch is desired.

A MANUAL devoted to the important subject of English prefixes and suffixes—under the title of AFFIXES,[1] is now supplied in the revised edition of an important work, which "the Contemporary Review" had pronounced "more rational, complete, and exhaustive of the component parts of our language than we had any good right to hope for within the present century;" and a late Athenæum (March 4, 1871), says "It is the most thorough book on the subject." Here the Analysis of Words is placed on a *scientific* instead of an *empirical* basis, and nothing seems to be explained by "euphony," that last refuge of etymological incurables. Hence there is no "*ig* for *in* in *ignoble*, by euphony"—but the word is properly explained on page 71, and instead of a spurious "rule" (Sanders, p. 15; Smith, p. 41), stating that words like *stable* "take" *i* between the *b* and *l* in *stability*, we read on page 128—

Obs. 1. As *bil* of *stability* is older than *bl* of *stable* (for *stabil*), the former does not "take" or "add" *i*, but *stable* has lost the *i* which *stability* retains.

Obs. 2. The vowel which has disappeared from the unaccented syllable, has been retained by the accent in flexi-bil-ity, credi-bil-ity.

Upon a hasty inspection, several educators have pronounced the AFFIXES "too learned," although there is no more "learning" than the subject requires if our knowledge is to be *definite* and *reliable*—and from this point of view, the book will be found more elementary than its predecessors. For example, the length of the Latin and Greek vowels is

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1 Affixes in their Origin and Application, exhibiting the Etymologic Structure of English Words. By S. S. Haldeman. Revised Edition. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co., 1871.

carefully marked, as in mărĕ, genitive mărĭs (where others have máre, with *a* long), and while these give *maritime* under this head, without any explanation of its component parts, Haldeman explains the first *i* as genitive, and the *t* and *m* as respectively participial. But mod-i-fy has a different *i* genitive (from *us*), it is dative in erech-th-ei-um, in rabbĭ it means *my*, it is a diminutive in tra-pez-i-um, a connective in terr-i-er, a plural in gemin-i, formative in gen-i-us, participial in sturdily, and adverbial in alib-i; and we have -o adverbial, connective, nominative, genitive, dative, ablative, and imperative. In hill-ock, -ock means *small*, in tuss-ock it means *large*, and in matt-ock and hav-oc it is verbal.

Nothing can be more definite and more elementary than such examples as the following, from the heads -BUS, -AC-y, and -ac-y (for the two latter are separated)—

omnibus (*to all, for all*, dative pl. of *ōmnis*), a kind of public vehicle: a legislative bill devoted to many purposes.

rebus (*by things*, ablative pl. of *rēs*), a riddle in pictures.

con-tum-acy (*tŭmĕo*, to swell) a *state of being* puffed up; a swell*ing* up or infla*tion;* contempt of lawful authority.

ob-stin-acy a (*stāns*) standing (*ob-*) against.

The book is got up in a unique and beautiful style by the publishers, who deserve much credit for the pains they have taken.

FOR the last eighteen years, or from 1852 to 1870, an educationist of Pennsylvania has called attention to the fact that certain high schools and academies confer collegiate degrees on pupils to whom they have not given a collegiate education, and who have not the knowledge which should entitle them to such honors. But American education suffers from this evil under another form, when the colleges themselves degrade these honors by conferring them upon men, whether "graduates" or not, who have but little scholarship. Such honors are held by the authors of a so-called *Analysis*, who attempt a dissection of English words without knowing the nature of the subject, who mistake the accidents of the spelling-book for genuine etymology, and who seem to have made no advance since the publication of

Mr. McElligott's Manual in 1845, or Lynd's book of 1847, when word-analysis was in its infancy.

With the authors of "Analysis of English Words" [1] (p. iii.) "the aim throughout has been to rid the subject of all needless embarrassment." Yet the book has plenty of it. On page 132, the suffix *ate*, with *cate*, *icate* are given with the same meaning of "to make, to give," in the words *implicate* and *duplicate*, of which *pli* is made the root of one, and *pl* of the other! On page 94 the cognate word *complex* is given as a verb, although it is primarily a Latin and English adjective, with the adjective suffix *s* of com-plec-s. On page 140 *adillo* in *peccadillo* is made to mean *little*, a meaning which belongs to *illo* alone, the identity of *ad* with *ate*, *ed*, *ado* (p. 134) and *ade* (p. 136) being overlooked. (See Haldeman's Affixes, pp. 108, 122.) The definition "one who; a person who"—assigned to *ado*, *ards*, etc. (p. 134), is inadmissible for *bravado*, *tornado*, *bastinado*, *placard*, *gurnard*, *standard*, *bombard*. The suffix *ize* is given to *civilize*, and *tize* to *stigmatize*, although the *t* belongs to the base, and does not affect the meaning of *ize*, and it remains in stig-m-at-ic, but not in fan-at-ic.

A false analysis, which makes *i* a part of *ify* in fals-ify (for fal-si-fy) and gives to the combination the same meaning (to make; to give) that *fy* has, leads to absurdities like the following. Many suffixes are known to be added to the genitive case as a stem, as in NIDUS (a nest) genitive NIDI, whence NID-I-FICO (I make a nest) and English nid-i-fic-ate, from the root FAC *to make*. But having detected a supposed suffix *cate* in implic-ate, it was easy to see it (p. 180) in nid-ifi-cate! This wonderful '*ifi*' destroys FAC or FIC, the richest root in English, where, according to Haldeman, it has upwards of six hundred derivatives. It may be said that the cognates are given (p. 58, 204) in FACTION, FECT, FICIENT, FICENT, FICE, FIT, FEIT, but each of these appears as a distinct radical, and the root FAC, which should connect them all, must be looked for in some other book.

But cognates are not brought together as such, and defined according to their affinities. Instead of following even

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1 An Analysis of English Words: by Charles W. Sanders, A.M., and James N. McElligott, LL.D. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co., 1864.

he dullest of their predecessors in showing that rePEL and ePULse have the same root, they have PEL on page 90, and 'ULSE as a distinct radical on page 184—far enough apart to prevent "needless embarrassment" from "loose conjecture." Under the former they have *eight* examples (expel, etc.) all with prefixes alone; under the latter there are *nine* examples (pulseless, etc.) all of which have suffixes alone, so that the pupil is spared the embarrassment of words like com-pell-b-le and re-pul-s-ive, which have both prefixes and suffixes. In this manner, to quote the Preface—"All the real advantages of the study are afforded, without cumbering the path of the student with remote collateral teachings, often the product of loose conjecture, and oftener still entirely beyond the grasp of those for whose especial benefit the course is intended."

The authors claim that this book embraces "a variety of Observations concerning the origin, forms, and changes of English Prefixes and Suffixes,"—but the changes are often given as separate affixes; the *t* of bough-t and ac-t are unrecognised, and consequently, the affinity between ac-t and ag-ent does not appear. The 'origin' of the affixes is not hinted at, those of Greek, Latin, and English origin being lumped together, as on page 16, where *a* of *ashore* is linked with *ad* of *adapt*. *Cog* (p. 18), *ig* and *ne* (p. 20) are not the prefixes of *cognate*, *ignoble*, *neither*. The distinct prefixes of *inactive* and *innate* (p. 20, 27) are confounded, and it is stated that "With adjectives it is merely negative;" merely! And why *merely?* Is it any less a negative in *inequality*, than *n* in *nullity*, or *ne* in *neuter*—or are these *merely* negative also? So *per* in *perfect* (p. 58) is "merely intensive," and we are told on p. 181 to "Observe, that one of the Suffixes, in the combination, IFY+CATE, is merely *euphonic*."

As MULTI and MAGNI are case forms of MULTUS and MAGNUS, they may, perhaps, be loosely defined by *much* and *great*, but in such cases, genuine forms or parts must be taken, and not such spurious ones as EDI *a house*, IDENT *the same*, SECUL *an age*. SCORIA is given entire, p. 188; and the similarly formed originals LEPRA and PETRA, of *leprous* and *petrous* are given under the different forms (p. 176, 184) of LEPR and PETRE. The persistent power of the spelling-

book, is shown in their treatment of *idolatry* (that is, idollatry or idol-worship) which, having lost an *l* from the spelling, is referred (p. 222) to IDO, *an image!*

On page 224 we find GASO, *gas*, (we are not told in what language,) because *gasometer* has an *o*, but as they had split the root FIC to get a *c* for CATE, and added an *i* to *ify*, they might have assumed a radical OMETER. Fearing to carry "loose conjecture" and "embarrassment" too far, the *t* of *egotist* (p. 238) is neither pushed back to EGO (like *o* in *gaso*,) nor forward to TIST (like *i* in justify,) and there it stands unexplained. Finding no embarrassment in splitting roots, it is remarkable that they did not think of splitting the *l* in *idolatry* and dividing the halves between *idol* and *latry*—each having precisely the same right to the remaining letter—and the feat could have been accomplished (the word being Greek,) with a Greek capital *l* (*Λ*) as in IDOΛATRY.

WEBB'S MODEL ETYMOLOGY[3] is a better work than the preceding one, or Smith's, but not better than Knighton's, or the Scholar's Companion. It has the defects of the ordinary compilations on the subject, such as false roots, false prefixes like *cog* and *ig*, and illustrative words which can not be explained from the book. Thus (p. 9) AL means *pertaining to*, and the example "paternal," according to the definition, should mean *pertaining to a patern*, because neither the *n* nor *nal* is explained, either here or on p. 116.

Virago is the only word under VIR, and its suffix is not given; but, as Virago means "a bold woman," the pupil may choose between *bold* and *woman* for the power of *ago;* and he would have "the book" on his side, were he to define *on* as "elderly" in "MATRON, an elderly lady." On page 99, Malign is defined by *slander*, *ign* being neglected, as well as the parts of *reminiscence*, *memento*, and *remembrance*, given under MEMOR, *mindful*. Such illustrative words should be explained, or replaced by others.

The "etymology" is not sufficiently etymologic, as when *antipathy* (adverse *feeling*) is defined by "repugnance," which is placed under PUGNA, *a battle*. *Nefarious* is referred

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[3] The Model Etymology, etc., by A. C. Webb. Philadelphia: Eldridge & Brother, 1868.

to NEFARIUS *wicked*, which teaches nothing but the meaning, and the long definition of *quarantine* does not tell how it is connected with QUARTUS, *the fourth*. In the Key it is referred to *quartus*, *ine*—leaving *ant* untouched.

The distinguishing feature of the book is the number of illustrative sentences, many of which are well selected and many commonplace.

[A medicine] "was considered a panacea for all diseases, till some *sensible* physician proved, by a careful analysis, that it contained no *sanative* properties." p. 133.

He probably analysed matter and not qualities, as a chemist searches a stomach, not for damage, but for arsenic.

"We can easily distinguish anthracite from bituminous coal, by the *cinders* and ashes." p. 48.

Rather the ability to distinguish the ashes. The two coals are not difficult to distinguish. "Close proximity" is twice used in illustration, although "PROXIMUS, *nearest*;" and "proximity, *immediate nearness*" are given. The following is too full of adjectives:

"The graphic descriptions of Milton's beautiful epic, exhibit the wonderful *versatility* of his genius." p. 149.

"Kepler *devoted* himself, for years, to the task of *verifying* his astronomical calculations." p. 149.

But was he not rather *making* the calculations? In the next, the sentence leaves in doubt the word *formation*, defined as *shape*. It should have been *structure*, or *mode of production*, according as the author meant one or the other.

"In a meeting . . . the *discussion* as to the *formation* of the *animalcule* was carried on . . ; but there was no *unanimity* until a microscope settled the *question*." p. 30.

"If no *translucent* atmosphere surrounded the earth, the *transition* from darkness to light, would be so sudden as to blind us. p. 66."

Here *translucent* is the wrong word, and there could be no such *transition* in an opaque atmosphere. In general, sentences thus made for the purpose of illustrating words, are scarcely as serviceable as good definitions.

THE Massachusetts Teacher is sorry to notice in "Barnes's one-term History" "some infelicities of expression, and errors of statement. For instance, from the note on the Puritans, on page 53, the reader would get the idea that all the Puritans of England went to Holland, and all belonged to the Rev. John Robinson's flock. Then again, on page 56, in a note referring to the Massachusetts Bay Colony, the author states that 'for eight years the Puritans had no pastor.' These errors seem to have risen from the author's not distinguishing between the Puritans as a body, and the Plymouth settlers. He calls the constitution adopted by the Connecticut colony, 'the first instance in all history of a written constitution framed by the people;' and yet he calls the compact made and signed on board the *Mayflower* a 'constitution.' Such an expression as this in regard to the late rebellion—'strange to say, the masses on both sides were stirred by the same patriotic impulse, love of country,' —will be rather confusing to the youthful mind, to say the least."

If the Massachusetts Reviewer had been less afflicted with sorrow, probably he might have observed greater "infelicities and errors" than those noted.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published "Manual of Reading," in four parts—Orthophony, Class Methods, Gesture, and Elocution. It is designed for Teachers and Students, by H. L. D. Potter. 420 pages.—"A Manual of German Conversation," to succeed the German Course. By George F. Comfort. 239 pages.—"Shakespeare's Comedy of The Tempest," Edited, with notes, by William J. Rolfe. 148 pages, with several engravings.—"The Life and Times of Henry Lord Brougham," written by himself. Volume Second—the work will be complete in three volumes. 400 pages.—"At Last:" a Christmas in the West Indies. By Charles Kingsley. 470 pages, with illustrations.—"King Arthur." A Poem, by Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton. 417 pages, illustrated.—"Agatha's Husband." A Novel, by the author of "John Halifax, Gentleman." 428 pages.

MESSRS. SHELDON & CO., have published a revised edition of "Elements of the Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene

of the Human System." By Justin R. Loomis. 254 pages, fully illustrated. To the Stoddard Mathematical Series, they have added "Elements of Trigonometry," plain and spherical. By Edward Olney. 200 pages.

MESSRS. G. P. PUTNAM & SONS have just issued "A History of England, Political, Military and Social, from the earliest times to the present. By Benson J. Lossing. 647 pages, with maps.

MESSRS. ELDREDGE & BROTHER have added to Chase & Stuart's Classical Series, "Cicero De Senectute Et De Amicitia." With explanatory notes, by E. P. Crowell & H. B. Richardson. They have just published (dated 1872,) "An Elementary Algebra for Schools and Academies." By Joseph W. Wilson. The author gives, in the preface, several good reasons for publishing his book.

HENDRICKS & CHITTENDEN of St. Louis, have published "First Lessons in Physics," for use in the upper grades of our common schools. By C. L. Hotze. The book is the right size for the purpose, and is superior to certain works of greater pretensions.

MESSRS. E. H. BUTLER & CO., have quite surprised Teachers, Superintendents, Boards of Education, and certain Publishers and School Book Agents, by presenting "An Entirely New Series of Readers," without any preliminary promises or boastings of forthcoming perfection. The series is compiled by Epes Sargent and Amasa May. It is complete in FIVE BOOKS. It is the "*cheapest*" and *smallest* series now published. The books are very well illustrated with 300 engravings, they are well printed and well bound. The authors claim that they "have endeavored to combine all the advantages of *the word Method, the A. B. C. Method, the Phonic System, and Object Teaching.*"

CHARLES C. CHATFIELD & CO., have published No. 6 of the University Series of Pamphlets—"The Action of Natural Selection on Man." By Alfred Russel Wallace. They reprint, from the London edition, "The Duration and Nature of Future Punishment." By Henry Constable. They have

published, in neat pamphlet form, "Valedictory Poem and Oration pronounced before the Senior Class in Yale College, July, 1871.

MESSRS. COWPERTHWAIT & CO., have just issued "The Fifth Reader." By Lewis B. Monroe. This is the first of a new series, which we purpose speaking of at some length, as early as practicable.

MR. OWEN has published a neat little "Map of the Solar System and Signs of the Zodiac." Its size is 20 x 24 inches, mounted with rollers, for suspending on the wall. Its price is 50 cents. It is also supplied in sheets at 25 cents.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

SAVANNAH, GA.—The Sixth Annual Report of the Public Schools for the City of Savannah and County of Chatham, for the year 1870–71, has been received. Just before the close of the previous scholastic year, the union of the Public and Catholic schools was consummated in accordance with a plan which after a year's trial, has proved satisfactory to both parties. A livelier interest has been manifested in the schools by the community during the past year than at any former period of their history. A larger number of children have been reached, the excellencies of the methods of instruction and discipline have become more apparent, and there has seemed to be a deeper conviction in the minds of the people that a substantial education is furnished in the Public Schools. It is gratifying to learn that the cause of common school education is steadily advancing, and that every year is giving it a firmer hold on the judgment and affections of the people of the South. The number of pupils enrolled during the year just closed was 2,438; number of teachers employed, 43; average daily attendance, 1,915; total expenses, $46,293.95, of which $37,492 was for teachers' salaries; cost per pupil on number enrolled, $16.25. The fact that there were only four deaths out of the 2,438 chil-

lren enrolled, is regarded by the Superintendent, Mr. W. H. Baker, as furnishing a strong argument against the charge that the tendency of the School System is to enfeeble the body, impair the health, and cause premature death.

TERRE HAUTE, IND.—Number of pupils enrolled, 3,410; average number belonging, 2,147; average daily attendance, 2,048; number of teachers, male, 8, female, 39; cost per pupil for tuition, $11.76; highest salary paid male teachers, $1,100, female teachers, $700.

DUBUQUE, IOWA.—There are employed 63 teachers, of whom 6 are males. They have had under their care during the past year, 2,723 pupils; the average attendance being 2,296, or 95 per cent. of the average number belonging. Average salaries paid teachers, male, $1,366, female, $380; cost per pupil for tuition, $11.51; entire cost per pupil, $14.57.

ALSATIA.—The re-organization of the schools of Alsatia is greatly impeded by misunderstandings, half voluntary, half unavoidable, under the peculiar circumstances. The conquered people do not like to be reconstructed on a German basis. The circumstances attending the dissolution of the college at Altkirch, are a fair sample. The local authorities offered to pay the requisite municipal contributions in advance, to adopt the German programme of studies, and allow the German language a greater range in the school, provided they were permitted to retain the French language as the medium of instruction, and have the right of nominating the professors. To this the German authorities would not assent. They would make the required contribution for the support of the school, but insisted on retaining the French language only in the upper classes. In the face of this difference the town declined all participation in the conduct of the college, and the institution was compelled to suspend operations.

A LITTLE girl was told to spell ferment, and give its meaning, with a sentence in which it was used. The following was literally her answer: "Ferment, a verb, signifying to work; I love to ferment in the garden."

MISCELLANEA.

MUSIC.—Horace Walpole once said: "Had I children, my utmost endeavors would be to breed them musicians. Considering I have no ear, nor yet thought of music, the preference seems odd; and yet it is embraced on frequent reflection. In short, as my aim would be to make them happy, I think it the most profitable method. It is a resource which will last their lives, unless they grow deaf; it depends on themselves, not on others; always amuses and soothes, if not consoles; and of all fashionable pleasures it is the cheapest."

KNOWLEDGE IS POWER.—That knowledge is power was happily illustrated by an incident that happened in Edinburg some years ago. A crowd had gathered around two dogs. The larger one, a powerful mastiff, had the smaller in his relentless grip. Every effort had been made to loosen his hold, such as slitting his ears, and biting and pinching his tail, but in vain. At length a quiet, scholarly looking gentleman came up and asked to be allowed to separate the combatants. Assent was given amid laughter and jeers, when, drawing a snuff-box from his pocket, he applied a pinch of the titillating powder to the mastiff's nose, who not only released his hold, but made off as fast as his legs could carry him. The scholar was greeted with cheers, but replied only, "Gentlemen, I have given you proof that knowledge is power."

A BOY'S COMPOSITION "ON STICKS."—"There are a great many kind of sticks in this world, some big and some little. Some are sticky and some are not. There are large sticks of wood, and that is one kind of sticks; and there are little bits of sticks, and that is another kind of sticks. Some people when they are handling money, it sticks to their pockets, so that is another kind of stick. Sometimes when a boy is doing an example he gets stuck, and that is another kind of stick. Sometimes when a horse is going along in muddy weather he gets stuck in the mud, that is another kind of stick. That is all I can think of now, so that is another stick."

Dr. Johnson's Indestructible School Charts.

The method of making these Charts is entirely new. There is neither paper, ink, printing press, tape, rollers, nor varnish employed in their manufacture. They are printed by hand in pure white lines, with imperishable oil colors, on enamelled jet black-cloth.

The inventor of these Charts prepared, in 1856, a series of *ten* Philosophical Charts, 3 ft. by 4 ft., embracing about 200 diagrams, a large edition of which were quickly sold,—the engravings being destroyed by fire, no subsequent editions were made.

To show the purpose of these Charts and the favor with which they were received, at the time of their publication, we give the opinions of a few of the most distinguished men of the age:

From Benjamin Silliman, LL.D., Prof. Emeritus in Yale College.

DR. JOHNSON'S Philosophical Charts are well worthy of the attention of all teachers and learners of the different branches of Natural Philosophy, to which they relate.

The diagrams drawn in colored or contrasted lines, upon a black ground, are perfectly distinct and intelligible, and the large size and handsome mounting of the Charts give them a striking and attractive appearance.

To teachers without apparatus, they must be an invaluable acquisition, and a very useful one to those who *have* the instruments.

Such illustrations, as they speak to the mind through the eye, admit of indefinite extension to every branch of Natural Science. BENJ. SILLIMAN.

From Rev. Francis Wayland, D.D., LL.D., formerly Pres. of Brown University.

I have carefully examined DR. JOHNSON'S Philosophical Charts, and think them well adapted to the purposes for which they are intended. They will afford important aid to instructors in Academies and Schools where Philosophical instruments are not furnished to perform illustrative experiments. In many cases they will also be of service even in addition to any ordinary apparatus.

FRANCIS WAYLAND,
Providence, R. I., Feb. 8th, 1856.

From the Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen, Pres. Rutgers College, New Jersey, formerly Chancellor of New York University.

DR. JOHNSON'S "Philosophical Charts," designed for the use of Schools and Academies, furnish an admirable substitute for the far more expensive apparatus. These Charts, hung on the walls of the school-room—in all of which I hope to see them—will spread before the scholar a palpable illustration of the great laws in Natural Philosophy. He will learn much of God, from the works of his hand and the ordinances of his appointment.

The small volume that accompanies them, and a little explanation from the teacher, will render the Charts one of the most useful means of instruction.

THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN.

From the Hon. Horace Mann, President Antioch College, Ohio, formerly Secretary Board of Education of Mass.

* * * * * * * In schools where there is not the philosophical apparatus, these beautiful "Charts" will be an excellent substitute for it; and I shall be glad to show and to commend them to such persons as can best introduce them into schools, and especially to such as shall go forth from our institution to become school teachers. HORACE MANN.

These Charts were made on paper and mounted on cloth and rollers, in the usual manner. To render the diagrams conspicuous, they were executed in white lines, by printing the back-ground black. The difficulty of printing a clean and pure black on so large a surface, made it impossible to execute them with desirable neatness and perfection; while, at the same time, it is admitted that *white figures* and *black ground* make the most satisfactory Charts, rendering them more conspicuous and yet easier for the eye.

There are several serious objections to the usual method of making Charts and Maps on paper, and then mounting them on cloth and rollers, which it is very desirable to avoid:

1st. As already stated, it is next to impossible to print a large black ground, and so give the diagram *in white* or light colored lines.

2d. Cloth and paper, pasted together, do not work well. In *damp* weather the *cloth shrinks* and the *paper swells*, and vice versa in *dry* weather. This draws the Chart out of a true plane, renders the surface wavy, and prevents it from hanging flat on the wall.

3d. The tape-binding, sewed or pasted on the edges, and the sticks nailed on at top and bottom, render the Chart clumsy and awkward to handle, as well as liable to need repairs.

4th. The cloth and paper, and the paste between them, make the Chart so stiff, that if it be rolled up in *damp* weather and unrolled in *dry* weather, it is impossible to make it hang flat on the wall.

5th. The varnish employed to improve and protect the surface soon cracks and crumbles off

6th. They soon appear dingy and show age.

7th. The paste employed in mounting often tempts the rats and mice to test what virtue there is in schooling for *them*, to the entire destruction of the Charts on the first investigation.

8th Charts thus made are not sufficiently durable for school purposes.

To obviate all these objections, Dr. JOHNSON has invented and adopted a method of producing "**Indestructible School Charts,**" as above described. The mounting consists of an oval stick run into a hem at top and bottom, thus avoiding paste, binding, nails, and clumsy rollers

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Dr. JOHNSON has in course of preparation, to be published by us, Charts on various subjects, to be made by this method. At present we have ready, and offer for sale:

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AMERICAN

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

DECEMBER, 1871.

*CONDITION OF EDUCATION IN THE EMPIRE STATE.**

A PROPER estimate of the condition and success of education involves its consideration in two aspects: its material resources and numerical results, and the character and intrinsic value of the work performed.

Our school system is rooted deep in the general conviction of its utility, has been nurtured into majestic growth by the genial warmth of public favor, and its fruitage has steadily increased. Since its first planting, there have been no radical changes interrupting that growth, but from time to time improvements have been engrafted upon it, which, in their turn, have yielded corresponding fruit.

The act of 1867, making the schools of the State free to every resident child between the ages of five and twenty-one, has developed each succeeding year increasing results, surpassing the sanguine expectations of its friends, and proving the ability of a free State voluntarily to provide for its own welfare in matters of public importance. Of more than ten millions of dollars expended during the last year for school purposes, over seven millions has been raised by

* Extract from paper, read at the late Convention of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, by Hon. Edward Danforth, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

voluntary local taxation. The following statistics for the school year, ending September 30th, 1870, have been taken from the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for that year, and show an improvement in almost every important particular, over the superior results of 1869.

The number of school-houses in 1870, was 11,695; of which 127 were log, 9,904 frame, 1,162 brick, 502 stone. The decrease for that year in the number of log houses was 24, in stone houses 16. The decrease in ten years, of log houses is 136, of stone 57. This is a loss of one-half of the log school-houses of 1860, and of sixteen per cent. of those of 1869, and at this rate of decrease these relics of a former civilization will ere long have passed away.

The increase of frame houses was in one year 10, in ten years 38; of brick houses in one year 22, in ten years 200. But this does not afford an estimate of the number of new houses that have been built. The amount expended for school-houses, sites, and improvements in 1870, was $1,970,000, of which $891,000 was raised and expended in the rural districts. Of $7,096,000 expended in the cities, and $5,330,000 in the rural districts, making a total of nearly twelve and a half millions of dollars expended for these purposes in the last ten years, $8,335,000, or nearly two-thirds of that amount, was raised and expended in the last four years. The yearly gain in the estimated value of school-houses and sites, during the last three years, has been about two millions of dollars, the present value being over twenty millions. The present average value of school-houses in the rural districts is $744 34-100, a gain of nearly 72 per cent. in five years.

The disposition of the people to provide liberally for their schools is further seen in the increased amount paid for teachers' wages. The gross amount paid for this purpose, the last school year (ending September 30, 1870), was six and a half millions of dollars, of which nearly three and a half millions was expended in the rural districts.

The increase the last year was over 400,000.00 dollars. In four years the gross amount annually paid for the salaries of teachers has advanced nearly 50 per cent., or, in 1870, $2,000,000 more than was paid in 1866.

That this advance is not entirely owing to a proportion-

ate increase in the number of teachers employed is proved by the advance made in the average annual salary of teachers, which shows a gain of 28 per cent. in four years. No better evidence of the general favor, with which the public school system is regarded, could be produced, than the increased expenditures in its behalf through the voluntary action of the people in their respective school districts. It is not strange that attendance at school, both aggregate and average, should also be increased.

The number of children between 5 and 21 years of age, on the 30th day of September, 1870, as appears from the official report of the State Superintendent referred to, was 1,480,761, and, of these, there attended the public schools, for the year closing on that day, 1,026,447, an increase over the preceding year of about 28,000, and over 1867, the most successful year of the rate-bill system, of 77,000. The average school-term in the rural districts, for each of the last three years, was 32 4-5 weeks, and for the seven years preceding but a little more than thirty weeks, that of 1867 being 30 3-5. The total average attendance for the entire average term of 1870 exceeded that for the shorter term of 1867 by 64,748—a gain in average attendance of more than 15 per cent., and that for a longer term.

The average length of time each pupil attended was nearly four months, a gain of 16 per cent. in three years.

The number of children who attended public schools some portion of the year is larger than the entire number of children between the ages of 6 and 17 years.

According to the report of the Regents of the University, the number of academies is 224; and the number from which reports have been received is 198. The attendance of pupils in higher studies is 13,382, and the average attendance of such is about 4,500. The examinations established by the Regents, upon which is based the annual distribution of the literature fund to the academies, have resulted in promoting a more thorough course of instruction in the common English branches in this class of schools.

That there is great inequality among the academies both in efficiency and in the instrumentalities of instruction, is distinctly stated by the Regents in their report, in which

they say, "if, with our present experience, we were to commence our academical system anew, there is little doubt that seventy-five or one hundred academies properly distributed through the State would, by their strong staff of teachers, their considerable libraries and well selected apparatus, do more effectual service in the cause of education than the present large number of institutions; as many of these, from their want of sufficient endowments and adequate support, are compelled to do much of their work imperfectly.

It is estimated that about ninety academies have been absorbed in the formation of union schools.

The attendance during the last school year upon all classes of schools, reported, was:

Pupils in colleges	3,207
" academies	30,313
" private schools	127,261
" normal schools	4,871
" common schools	1,026,447
Total	1,192,099

or, more than 80 per cent. of the entire number of children in the State between 5 and 21 years of age.

The facts already stated afford abundant evidence of the material resources liberally supplied for the encouragement of education, and show the numerical results of its present management.

In addition, the State has undertaken to maintain eight normal schools, six of which are already in successful operation, county teachers' institutes, and a system of supervision, which, together, will require annually an expenditure of nearly $300,000.

This demonstrates that the necessity of a full and specific preparation of teachers, and the value of thorough inspection and supervision are understood, and that the popular sentiment will expect and demand that the fulfillment of these conditions be evinced in the character and efficiency of the schools. The fact that New York may rightfully boast of a school system and of schools not surpassed, if equalled, by any of her sister States, will not blind the peo-

ple to the prevailing need of improvement in methods of instruction, school management and general culture.

The want of a sufficient number of well qualified teachers is universally acknowledged.

Yet an encouraging symptom is found in the increasing number in attendance upon normal schools, teachers' classes in academies, and teachers' institutes.

The attendance at normal schools of persons pledged to "teach in the public schools of this State" was, in 1860, 331; in 1865, 358; in 1870, 1,921.

The attendance upon teachers' classes in 1870, was 1,494.

The attendance upon teachers' institutes, during the calendar year of 1870, was 10,397, a number larger than ever before, and exceeding eighty per cent. of the "whole number of teachers employed for twenty-eight weeks or more" in the fifty-six counties in which the institutes were held.

It is also worthy of mention, that of 28,217 teachers employed during some portion of the year, 17,437 were employed twenty-eight weeks or more, an increase, in five years, of 2,000 for the full term, while, in the same period, the total number has slightly diminished. This tendency to permanency and stability, and the increase in the annual salaries of teachers, before mentioned, would indicate an improvement in the quality of teachers, which the community has appreciated. Teaching, as a profession, will never be duly recognized nor honored in accordance with its true character and dignity, until only those who have studied well its character, mastered its principles and thoroughly prepared themselves, assume its work.

Educational conventions may pass resolutions that teachers ought to receive a higher rate of compensation, that discrimination in wages, on account of sex, is unjust, and that the profession itself deserves a more honorable recognition, but nothing will be gained by it, except it be degradation for such concessions. The problem must be worked out. Good teaching will, in time, commend itself, and create a demand for those who can administer it, to the exclusion of the incompetent. The quality, and the supply and demand, in this as in commercial affairs, will, to a certain degree, control the price. If female teachers shall evince

qualities and success, in the management and instruction of large and advanced schools, superior to those of males, their services will be preferred, as is already the case in the work of primary instruction.

But chief in opportunity, and hence in importance, as a means of elevating the standard of qualifications for teachers, dignifying the work of instruction, and rendering efficient our system of education, is thorough, competent and faithful inspection and supervision.

Supervisory officers have the power, and it is their duty, to shut out the competition of inferior teachers, and make a teacher's license a guaranty of merit, securing for the holder a certain measure of confidence and respect; to aid and stimulate the work of instruction by frequent visitation and thorough inspection, and to promote, by various means which are proper, a healthy public sentiment in regard to education.

They should, themselves, always be men competent to lead and advise in educational matters, and to these devote their entire time and unceasing energies. This was evidently the intent of the law which so clearly and emphatically defines the duties of School Commissioners in this respect, and its wisdom is seen in the benefits which have resulted where its conditions have been most faithfully observed. If, on the contrary, this essential provision for the perfecting of our system of education is not vigorously executed, it will not be strange if, before long, some other plan for securing thorough school inspection should be adopted.

The superiority of public elementary instruction in Holland to that of any other European State, according to the unanimous testimony of her own distinguished educators, and those of other countries, is entirely attributed to a system of inspection which, for completeness and thoroughness, is probably unequalled in any other country on the globe.

W. E. Hickson, an English critic, remarks: "The Dutch school-masters are decidedly superior to the Prussian, and the schools of primary instruction, consequently, in a more efficient state. This superiority we attribute entirely to a better system of inspection. In Holland, inspection is the basis upon which the whole fabric of popular instruction rests."

There, no one is allowed to teach, even a private school, without a certificate from the authorized inspector, and, as might be expected, the rank of the teacher is second to none in consideration and respectability. On this point Mr. George Nicholls, in his report to the poor law commissioners of England, states, that "In Holland, the direct interference of the Government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction, by means of an organized system of inspection. . . This exclusion of absolute incapacity is a means, and a very powerful one, of raising the character of the profession in popular estimation. There is no profession that ranks higher than that of a school-master, and a nobleman would scarcely, if at all, command more respect than is paid to many of those who devote their lives to the instruction of youth. . . We saw those treated as equals, who are, in England, often estimated as only on a rank with grooms and upper servants."

The limits of this paper will not permit a review of the courses of study and methods of instruction pursued in the schools. Though a radical improvement has been made in these respects, during the last few years, there is room for more. Many subjects of study are attempted, in detail, to an extent beyond the time and ability of the pupil to master, and to the exclusion of many branches of equal, if not greater, practical value. Of this, text-books in geography furnish an example. That matter and method should correspond, in their arrangement, with the order and mode of mental development, is a self-evident and fundamental principle of education; and, of necessity, courses of study have been, in a measure, made subservient to this principle; but, though readily recognized in its general application, it has never been fully worked out and made of practical utility.

Education is a matter of growth as a science, as well as in its application to individuals. The goal is not yet. The end will not be reached until the mind, in its mysterious nature, its physical dependencies, and the laws of its unfolding and growth, are perfectly understood, and govern all our methods in education, so that they shall subserve the most complete and harmonious development of soul, mind and body, in the fullness of beauty, symmetry and strength.

EDUCATIONAL VENEERING.

VENEERING is a great art. It makes things "go so much farther," and there is nothing an economist likes so much as to make things hold out. Our ancestors were so foolish as to build solid mahogany tables, bureaus, and sideboards. We know better. We have found out that a piece of wood a sixteenth of an inch thick will transform the commonest wood into mahogany or rosewood. And so the honest old tables and sideboards have given place to sleek veneered ones, which look just as well.

A monument should be built to the man who discovered this wonderful art. For its applications are so numerous. The crockery men sell imitation china; they have learned the art of veneering. The rogue veneers himself with the dress and manners of a gentleman. The cook veneers her dishes. The shaky broker veneers his credit by keeping up appearances. The parson, alas! sometimes veneers his sermon with thin layers of learning. The doctor veneers his conversation with sounding phrases. The politician veneers his thieving by thin patriotism. The fortune-hunter veneers his cupidity with professions of love. What a wonderful art it is! How bad we should feel if the veneering were taken off, and all our purposes, acquirements, and pretension appeared the naked pine and poplar that they are!

But when it comes to education, we wish veneering had never been invented. And now that George and Maria are about to begin school, let us enter our protest against the veneering establishments. There are schools for boys and hundreds of schools for girls where the whole business transacted is the putting on of a thin layer of outward appearances. Everything is taught from a compend. History is boiled down to a strong decoction of facts and dates, and Ann Matilda is required to swallow it. "There were five thousand on one side, commanded by Gen. Brown. There were seven thousand on the other, commanded by Gen. Smith. Gen. Smith was surprised on Sunday morning, and driven back with a loss of five hundred men and three pieces of artillery." This Ann Matilda, and Ann Matilda's

parents, and Ann Matilda's friends fondly believe is history. It is paid for as history, labeled history, and must be history. But whatever there is of philosophy, poetry, of culture, of mental discipline in history is gone. This dessicated extract has no nourishment whatever. Of the peculiarities of race, of the domestic life, of the underlying causes of history, Ann Matilda learns nothing. She has swallowed a register, a gazetteer, but not a history. But she has passed her examination and "graduated." Her education is all right. It has the seal of the proper authorities on it, and she can go in peace.

English literature is worse taught than history. It is a thing that can not be learned from a compend. The very essence of the highest culture, for people who speak the English language, is in English literature. But no one can learn English literature at second-hand. A good, thorough knowledge of the authors themselves in their works is the only road to this culture. And all short-cuts are only delusions.

The great mistake in the education of girls, and for that matter of boys, is that they master nothing. A little here and a little there is the plan. The object seems to be to enable the pupil to give a long catalogue of things studied. And for this charlatanism the parents who demand it are chiefly responsible. There are schools which are thorough. It is not for us to point them out, but for parents to be sure that they are not caught with the chaff of an empty pretense. In education, veneering will peel off.—*Hearth and Home.*

STATISTICS of the Russian Department of Education show that the efforts of the Government to raise the educational status of the Empire are sadly needed. In Siberia, only one person in 664 is under schooling. In the southern provinces—Kieff, Padolia, and Volhynia—the proportion is one to 532; in the three Old Russian provinces, possessing no school boards, one to 471; in the thirty-five Old Russian provinces, having school boards, one to 168; in the Kingdom of Poland, one to 31; in the Baltic provinces, one to 19.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH?—VIII.

WORTHLESSNESS OF ORDINARY HISTORY.

WE will now consider what knowledge best fits us for the discharge of the functions of citizens. Our school courses contain certain studies which, nominally at least, bear upon political and social duties. Of these the only one that occupies a prominent place is History.

But the historic information commonly given is almost valueless for purposes of guidance. Scarcely any of the facts set down in our school-histories, and very few even of those contained in the more elaborate works written for adults, give any clue to the right principles of political action. The biographies of monarchs (and our children commonly learn little else) throw scarcely any light upon the science of society. Familiarity with court intrigues, plots, usurpations, or the like, and with all the personalities accompanying them, aids very little in elucidating the principles on which national welfare depends. We read of some squabble for power, that it led to a pitched battle; that such and such were the names of the generals and their leading subordinates; that they had each so many thousand infantry and cavalry, and so many cannon; that they arranged their forces in this and that order; that they manœuvred, attacked, and fell back in certain ways; that at this part of the day such disasters were sustained, and at that such advantages gained; that in one particular movement some leading officer fell, while in another a certain regiment was decimated; that after all the changing fortunes of the fight, the victory was gained by this or that army; and that so many were killed and wounded on each side, and so many captured by the conquerors. And now, out of the accumulated details which make up the narrative, say which it is that helps you in deciding on your conduct as a citizen. Supposing even that you had diligently read, not only "The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World," but accounts of all other battles that history mentions; how much more judicious would your vote be at the next election? "But these are facts—interesting facts," you say. Without doubt

they are facts (such, at least, as are not wholly or partially fictions); and to many they may be interesting facts. But this by no means implies that they are valuable. Factious or morbid opinion often gives seeming value to things that have scarcely any. A tulipomaniac will not part with a choice bulb for its weight in gold. To another man an ugly piece of cracked old china seems his most desirable possession. And there are those who give high prices for the relics of celebrated murderers. Will it be contended that these tastes are any measures of value in the things that gratify them? If not, then it must be admitted that the liking felt for certain classes of historical facts is no proof of their worth; and that we must test their worth as we test the worth of other facts, by asking to what uses they are applicable. Were some one to tell you that your neighbor's cat kittened yesterday, you would say the information was worthless. Fact though it might be, you would say it was an utterly useless fact—a fact that could in no way influence your actions in life—a fact that would not help you in learning how to live completely. Well, apply the same test to the great mass of historical facts, and you will get the same result. They are facts from which no conclusions can be drawn—*unorganizable* facts; and therefore facts which can be of no service in establishing principles of conduct, which is the chief use of facts. Read them, if you like, for amusement; but do not flatter yourself they are instructive.

That which constitutes History, properly so called, is in great part omitted from works on the subject. Only of late years have historians commenced giving us, in any considerable quantity, the truly valuable information. As in past ages the king was every thing and the people nothing; so, in past histories the doings of the king fill the entire picture, to which the national life forms but an obscure background. While only now, when the welfare of nations rather than of rulers is becoming the dominant idea, are historians beginning to occupy themselves with the phenomena of social progress. That which it really concerns us to know, is the natural history of society. We want all facts which help us to understand how a nation has grown and organized itself. Among these, let us of course have an

account of its government; with as little as may be of gossip about the men who officered it, and as much as possible about the structure, principles, methods, prejudices, corruptions, etc., which it exhibited: and let this account not only include the nature and actions of the central government, but also those of local governments, down to their minutest ramifications. Let us of course also have a parallel description of the ecclesiastical government—its organization, its conduct, its power, its relations to the State: and accompanying this, the ceremonial, creed, and religious ideas—not only those nominally believed, but those really believed and acted upon. Let us at the same time be informed of the control exercised by class over class, as displayed in all social observances—in titles, salutations, and forms of address. Let us know, too, what were all the other customs which regulated the popular life out of doors and in-doors; including those which concern the relations of the sexes, and the relations of parents to children. The superstitions, also, from the more important myths down to the charms in common use, should be indicated. Next should come a delineation of the industrial system: showing to what extent the division of labor was carried; how trades were regulated, whether by caste, guilds, or otherwise; what was the connection between employers and employed; what were the agencies for distributing commodities, what were the means of communication; what was the circulating medium. Accompanying all which should come an account of the industrial arts technically considered: stating the processes in use, and the quality of the products. Further, the intellectual condition of the nation in its various grades should be depicted: not only with respect to the kind and amount of education, but with respect to the progress made in science, and the prevailing manner of thinking. The degree of æsthetic culture, as displayed in architecture, sculpture, painting, dress, music, poetry, and fiction, should be described. Nor should there be omitted a sketch of the daily lives of the people—their food, their homes, and their amusements. And lastly, to connect the whole, should be exhibited the morals, theoretical and practical, of all classes: as indicated in their laws, habits, proverbs, deeds. All these

facts, given with as much brevity as consists with clearness and accuracy, should be so grouped and arranged that they may be comprehended in their *ensemble;* and thus may be contemplated as mutually dependent parts of one great whole. The aim should be so to present them that we may readily trace the *consensus* subsisting among them; with the view of learning what social phenomena co-exist with what others. And then the corresponding delineations of succeeding ages should be so managed as to show us, as clearly as may be, how each belief, institution, custom, and arrangement was modified; and how the *consensus* of preceding structures and functions was developed into the *consensus* of succeeding ones. Such alone is the kind of information respecting past times, which can be of service to the citizen for the regulation of his conduct. The only history that is of practical value, is what may be called Descriptive Sociology. And the highest office which the historian can discharge, is that of so narrating the lives of nations, as to furnish materials for a Comparative Sociology; and for the subsequent determination of the ultimate laws to which social phenomena conform.

But now mark, that even supposing an adequate stock of this truly valuable historical knowledge has been acquired, it is of comparatively little use without the key. And the key is to be found only in Science. Without an acquaintance with the general truths of biology and psychology, rational interpretation of social phenomena is impossible. Only in proportion as men obtain a certain rude, empirical knowledge of human nature, are they enabled to understand even the simplest facts of social life: as, for instance, the relation between supply and demand. And if not even the most elementary truths of sociology can be reached until some knowledge is obtained of how men generally think, feel, and act under given circumstances; then it is manifest that there can be nothing like a wide comprehension of sociology, unless through a competent knowledge of man in all his faculties, bodily and mental. Consider the matter in the abstract, and this conclusion is self-evident. Thus:—Society is made up of individuals; all that is done in society is done by the combined actions of individuals; and

therefore, in individual actions only can be found the solutions of social phenomena. But the actions of individuals depend on the laws of their natures; and their actions cannot be understood until these laws are understood. These laws, however, when reduced to their simplest expression, are found to depend on the laws of body and mind in general. Hence it necessarily follows, that biology and psychology are indispensable as interpreters of sociology. Or, to state the conclusions still more simply:—all social phenomena are phenomena of life—are the most complex manifestations of life—are ultimately dependent on the laws of life—and can be understood only when the laws of life are understood. Thus, then, we see that for the regulation of this fourth division of human activities, we are, as before, dependent on Science. Of the knowledge commonly imparted in educational courses, very little is of any service in guiding a man in his conduct as a citizen. Only a small part of the history he reads is of practical value; and of this small part he is not prepared to make proper use. He commonly lacks not only the materials for, but the very conception of, descriptive sociology; and he also lacks that knowledge of the organic sciences, without which even descriptive sociology can give him but little aid.—*Herbert Spencer.*

THE INFLUENCE OF MUSIC ON ANIMALS.

THE most common exhibition of the influence of music on animals is, perhaps, that witnessed in circuses and other equestrian entertainments, where the horse is affected in a lively and exhilarating manner by the performances of the band—often waltzing and prancing, and keeping perfect time with the music.

Dogs are affected by music; but it is difficult to determine whether agreeably or otherwise. Many naturalists believe it to be disagreeable to them; an opinion which is strongly supported by the fact that, if left to their liberty, they generally take flight with howls as soon as the music reaches their ears. They have been known to die when compelled

to hear music for a considerable time. Other quadrupeds, and also owls, have been known to die from the effect of music.

Cats are said to mew loudly on hearing the sound of instruments, but are more seldom and less painfully affected than dogs. On the other hand, it is well known that many kinds of birds are affected in a very agreeable manner; often approaching as near as possible the instruments, or persons, and remaining as long as the music continues, and then flapping their wings, as we should clap our hands, in approbation of the performance.

Many of the wild animals are said to be fond of and even charmed by music; the hunters in the Tyrol and some parts of Germany often entice stags by singing, and the female deer by playing the flute. Beavers and rats have been taught to dance the rope, keeping time to music.

Among reptiles, the lizard shows, perhaps, the most remarkable susceptibility to musical influences; lying first on his back, and then on his side, and anon on his belly, as if desiring to expose every part of his body to the effect of the sonorous fluid which is so delightful to him. He appears to be very refined in his taste; soft voices and plaintive airs being his favorites, while hoarse singing and noisy music disgust him.

Among the insects, spiders are found to be very fond of music; as soon as the sounds reach them, they descend along their web to the point nearest to that from which the music originates, and there remain motionless as long as it continues. Prisoners sometimes tame them by singing or whistling, and make companions of them.

But perhaps the most remarkable instance of the influence of music on animals occurred at a menagerie in Paris, a few years ago, when a concert was given, and two elephants were among the auditors. The orchestra being placed out of their sight, they could not perceive whence the harmony came. The first sensation was that of surprise; at one moment they gazed eagerly at the spectators; the next they ran at their keeper to caress him, and seemed to inquire what these strange sounds meant; but, at length, perceiving that nothing was amiss, they gave themselves up to the im-

pressions which the music communicated. Each new tune seemed to produce a change of feeling, causing their gestures and cries to assume an expression in accordance with it. But it was still more remarkable that after a piece had produced an agreeable effect upon them, if it was incorrectly played they would remain cold and unmoved.

CRITICISING SCHOOL BOOKS.

THE *Evening Mail* has very sensibly discoursed on this subject. It thinks that a good service is done by honest and capable critics when they point out details in which certain books may be inferior. Thus errors may be corrected and our books improved. Newspaper criticism, by the very conditions of the case, is so apt in this country to be hurried and superficial that the painstaking and intelligent reviewer should be given all possible encouragement, especially in the infinitely important matter of school-books. Honest and specific criticism is a help, not a hindrance, to the publisher, for publishing houses, like other things, grow and prosper essentially according to the inevitable law of natural selection—the inferior dies to give to the superior greater scope. It pays a publisher better to waste a whole edition, rather than to keep his imprint upon exposed errors, and the best know this and have acted on it. Why, therefore, will not the trade generally learn not to fly to arms at once against honest critics, their real friends, but instead of by the silly and undignified childishness of poor sarcasm, or still more objectionable means, to dispute the critic's verdict, if they have good reason to dispute it, courteously and in the same spirit of reaching the right in which that verdict has been given? The *Christian Union* asserts that hypercriticism of a school book is impossible.

A RESIDENT of Kalamazoo writes to a "school boored" in Ohio that he will take a school, as he "has tought 2 terms school and I attended 1 colledge 1 yrs at detroit, michigan and am 26 yrs avage."

THE MADDENING MECHANISM OF THOUGHT.

OUR Brains are seventy year clocks. The Angel of Life winds them up once for all, then closes the case and gives the key into the hands of the Angel of Resurrection. Tic-tac! tic-tac! go the wheels of thought; our will cannot stop them; they cannot stop themselves; sleep cannot still them; madness makes them go faster; death alone can break into the case, and seizing the ever-swinging pendulum which we call the heart, silence at last the clicking of the terrible escapement we have carried so long beneath our wrinkled foreheads. If we could only get at them, as we lie on our pillows and count the dead beats of thought after thought, and image after image jarring through the over-tired organ! Will nobody block those wheels, uncouple the pinion, cut the string that holds those weights, blow up the infernal machines with gunpowder? What a passion comes over us sometimes for silence and rest—that this dreadful mechanism, unwinding the endless tapestry of time, embroidered with spectral figures of life and death, could have but one brief holiday? Who can wonder that men swing themselves off from beams in hempen lassos?—that they jump from parapets into the swift and gurgling waters beneath?—that they take counsel of the grim fiend who has but to utter his one peremptory monosyllable, and the restless machine is shivered as a case that is dashed upon a marble floor? Under that building which we pass every day there are strong dungeons, where neither hook, nor bar, nor bed-cord, nor drinking vessel from which a sharp fragment may be shattered, shall by any chance be seen. There is nothing for it when the brain is on fire with the whirling of its wheels, but to spring against the stone wall and silence them by one crash. Ah, they remembered that—the kind city fathers—and the walls are nicely padded, so that one can take such exercise as he likes without damaging himself. If anybody would really contrive some kind of a lever that one could thrust in among the works of this horrid automaton and check them, or alter their rate of going, what would the world give for the discovery? Men are very apt to try

to get at the machine by some indirect system or other. They clap on the brakes by means of opium, they change the maddening monotony of the rhythm by means of fermented liquors. It is because the brain is locked up and we cannot touch its movements directly, that we thrust these coarse tools in through any crevice by which they may reach the interior, alter its rate of going for a while, and at last spoil the machine.—*Oliver Wendell Holmes.*

OUR PUBLIC EDUCATION.

THE events of the Franco-Prussian war have directed a large share of public attention to the characteristic features of the German policy. Conspicuous among these, we number their system of public instruction, which we shall briefly notice for the purpose of comparing it with the educational provisions of our own country. We observe, First: That the Prussian educational system ordains that all children shall be compelled to attend some school, public or private, between the ages of seven and fourteen. Second: The public schools—which rise in gradation from the primary, through five intermediate grades to the universities—are all supervised by the State, and are supported by local taxes, fees, and endowments, and in case of any deficit in their income from these sources, by direct appropriations from the government. Third: Great attention is paid to gymnastics, music, and religion, and to the application of the sciences to the arts of life. Fourth: In order to elevate the art of teaching into a distinct and honorable profession, the government enacts that no person shall teach, who has not passed creditably through the severe training of the Normal schools. The salary given to Prussian teachers is seldom more than sufficient for their respectable maintenance, but provision is made for their support in sickness, or old age, and for the assistance of their families after their death. The number of pupils assigned to any one teacher is also fixed by law.

The active enforcement of the above, and of minor regula-

tions, has raised Prussia to the foremost rank in the educational world, and has done much toward making her the first political power in Europe. In comparing her public school system with our own, we are struck by the fact that ours nowhere recognizes any intermediate education, between the high school (which corresponds with the lowest grade of the German secondary schools,) and the State University. Our failure to make public provision for secondary education, or to give such endowments to our universities as would enable them to be more than mere preparatory schools for the universities of Germany, is due to the absorption of capital in the material development of our new country, to the discredit into which scholarship has fallen from its being comparatively useless in aiding such development, and to the active demand for, and high price of labor, which early attract our youth into business life.

It may well be questioned whether it would be politic for us in our present condition to divert a much larger amount of capital and labor from the material improvement of the country, to the purposes of the higher education, but it cannot be doubted that we stand in eminent need of the very best elementary instruction. And yet, notwithstanding that our common schools have the most liberal financial basis in the world, they are found to be much less efficient than the schools of the same grade; that is, the primary schools in Prussia.

This being the case, it is worth while to consider in what respects the Prussian system may be naturalized in this country. First: We would do well to imitate its thorough regulations concerning normal instruction. Our educational *theories* need comparatively little improvement. They recognize the necessity of practical education, and they are more than beginning to admit the claims of music, drawing and physical training, but the teachers, upon whom the duty of effectuating these theories depends are too often unequal to the trust. The annual graduates of the twenty-seven Normal schools which we numbered in 1870, are far from being sufficient to supply teachers to the country. For example, of the 1,700 teachers in Illinois, there are not two

per cent. that have taken the full course of the Normal University. It is true that all our Normal schools are of comparatively recent date, but even if they were much older, and their number and endowments were adequately increased, it could not be expected that they would be satisfactorily attended, so long as a professional training is not demanded of applicants for school situations. Our State governments have always regarded the instruction of the people as a public trust; ten years ago, they had devoted over $50,000,000 to its support, and they have recognized its general superintendence as a department of State. Having done so much, it is clearly their duty to see that this great interest is properly secured, by being intrusted to competent hands. In other words, they should make a thorough normal training an indispensable preparation for teaching. The Normal schools should be regarded as training establishments for an important branch of the civil service, and the teacher should be considered a servant of the State.

Second: We should (like the Prussians) so elevate and secure the remuneration of *good* teachers as to make it worth while for them to continue permanently in the profession. One of the greatest drawbacks under which our schools labor, particularly in the West, is the continual change of teachers. At a late Convention of the Iowa Teachers' Association, it was found that only three of the persons present had been members for twelve years, and that the longest term of office ever enjoyed by an Iowa Superintendent was less than seven years. Under such circumstances, no real *esprit du corps* can be built up, and the advantages of long professional experience are comparatively lost.

Third: Having provided for a thoroughly trained and permanent body of teachers, we should see that the largest possible number of children is brought under their influence; in other words, we should adopt the German system of compulsory education. By so doing, we could not fail to decrease the vast amount of illiteracy which is now threatening our republican institutions. We should also diminish pauperism, for general industry, improved agriculture, developing manufactures and timely emigration are the natural results of popular intelligence. England, which has

done so little toward educating the masses, is now the prey of her pauper population. In 1859, the per centage of this class in England and Wales was four-sixths of the whole people. Scotland, on the contrary, early adopted the policy of compulsory education, and notwithstanding the poverty of her resources, is comparatively free from pauperism.

Finally: We should by this course diminish crime; for although it is true that obedience to the law of Christ is in no wise connected with intelligence, experience shows that observance of the civil law is closely related to it. It may be said that compulsory education is inimical to the principles of our government, but it can hardly be true that a measure is hostile to our institutions when it directly tends to preserve them. It is the increase of ignorance which threatens the republicanism of the United States, as it is the increase of education which menaces the monarchism of Germany.

We would suggest in conclusion, that the encouragement of religion in the German schools should be rather a warning than an example to us, if we would avoid the division of the school fund among the different sects; for, notwithstanding her strong government and her State church, Prussia has been constrained to make separate provision for Protestants and Catholics, both in her Normal and children's schools. Should the late agitation respecting the Bible in our public schools be revived, we shall doubtless be compelled to make a similar accommodation, or else surrender the use of the Scriptures when it must seem an extorted concession to infidel and Romanist clamors, instead of a free, though tardy recognition of the broad principles of liberty and justice.

THERE are three kinds of men in the world—the Wills, the Wonts, and the Cants. The first effect everything; the others oppose everything. "I will" builds our railroads and steamboats; "I wont" don't believe in experiments and nonsense; while "I cant" grows weeds for wheat, and commonly ends his days in the slow digestion of bankruptcy.

TOYS AS TEACHERS.

THE primary use of toys to children is to keep them occupied. A mother thinks what her infant, even when only a few months old, requires to amuse him, and she selects a bright-colored bird, or a rattle, or something which it can feel, shake, and look at. An elder child complains of having nothing to do; and a toy or game is found, or a book of pictures or little stories, with which he may amuse himself. The great aim of all those who understand the bringing-up of children is to keep them constantly engaged, and, at the same time, though encouraging them to play as long as possible with one toy, yet to change and vary their occupations and amusements as soon as they show signs of mental fatigue or weariness. This constant employment is not only desirable for children, but is really essential for them; they must be doing something, and, as has been well remarked, even mischief is but misapplied energy. Toys are the natural instruments on which this energy and activity should be expended. It is the province of the toy-dealer to find objects for the exercise of their minds and fingers, just as much as for the baker to supply them with bread, or the shoe-maker with shoes.

Children are essentially active in every sense, and toys cannot properly be called toys at all if they are merely capable of being looked at, and do no more than amuse the eye for a few moments. This fact will often account for the peculiar way in which children take fancies to their toys. Of course the glitter of a new thing, whatever it may be, lasts for some time; but it will be remarked how they generally return to some old plaything, long since bereft of its beauty, because they can do something with it. A broken doll, even with no legs and arms, may be dressed and handled as a baby; a horse without legs may be dragged about the floor, and so on; whereas a new picture-book is soon put aside after the novelty of the illustrations is forgotten; and a very elaborate mechanical toy, too delicate even to be handled, is not cared for much after it has been exhibited a few times, and has ceased to be a novelty.

While carefully avoiding the mistake of making play a

lesson, some few toys, if well selected, may impart a vast amount of instruction, and that without the child having to undergo any undue mental strain. It would, of course, be undesirable to give a little boy five or six years old a direct lesson on the principles of the bridge and the use of the keystone. Give him, however, a box of bricks capable of making a bridge with the centring, and show him how to put it together; he will puzzle over it for days, try every sort of arrangement, and unwittingly become gradually and practically acquainted with some important mechanical laws. Again, a little model of a steam-engine made to work by gas or spirit, which may be bought for a few shillings, is a most attractive toy. Children will watch it for hours. They see the water poured in; they remark that it is made to boil, and soon has to be replenished; they notice the action of the valves, the piston, the crank, and all the parts. When they come to study the theoretical laws of steam and machines, half the difficulty of their first lessons vanishes. Reading may be taught entirely by means of the various games and toys with letters and words which are in common use. These toys depend for their interest and attraction on the way they are put before children. With one teacher, they are little better than a dry spelling-book; whereas with another, the finding out of the different letters and the placing them together like a puzzle may interest a child for hours, during which the infant is learning to read and spell in the best possible manner, and in a way he is least likely to forget. The first four rules of arithmetic, again, may be taught almost entirely by means of cube bricks, and a great step made in the formidable multiplication table, before the child is wearied out with the monotonous repetition of what too often seems to him an endless and meaningless list of figures. Writing is the only subject which, perhaps, requires more direct lesson-work. Even here, however, the "printing" lessons used to teach reading may be copied on a slate, their shape learned, and, what is of still greater importance, the power of holding and guiding a pencil imparted, before the copy-book, pot-hook and hanger has made writing an unpleasant and tedious task.—*Chambers' Journal.*

SCHOOLMASTERS AS PROFESSORS.

A PROFESSOR, strictly speaking, is one who has mastered some science and devotes himself exclusively to it. He keeps abreast of its literature. He adds, by discovery, to its facts and laws. He has a right to add new names to its terminology. Under this definition it is scarcely possible for an all-day and every-day teacher to be a professor. His time, which would otherwise be consumed in mastering one science, is occupied in teaching many. Of each of these he is, properly speaking, only an amateur. As such he is fully competent to instruct tyros; but would be a learner only in the presence of a true professor. At the same time, it may easily happen that the most laborious schoolmaster may perform at times the highest functions of a professor. Nothing prevents that he should even discover great principles. Other amateurs have done so, and why may not he? Goethe was only an amateur botanist, but in that science he brought to light one of the grandest laws. The record of history is that "it was reserved for the first of Germans, the poet Goethe, to effect the last great revolution that the ideas of botanists have undergone." He demonstrated that the floral organs are all modifications of the leaf; "the branch being a contracted leaf, the calyx and corolla a combination of several, the stamens contracted and colored leaves in a state of disintegration, and the pistils leaves rolled up according to certain laws." *(Figuier.)* In like manner analogy suggests that the teacher may possibly be an observer of new facts. Other men, not strictly professors, have increased the sum of human knowledge by new phenomena observed, and so may he. The first observer of a transit of Venus was not a professor, but a clergyman. "Kepler did not anticipate it, and so the honor both of predicting and observing it rests with a young English amateur, Jeremiah Horrox, of Hoole." *(Chambers.)* So with the polarization of light. It was not a member of the Institute, but a French officer, Malus, who, while "looking through a piece of crystal at the image of the sun reflected from the windows of the Luxembourg," made those happy

observations which led to our better knowledge of the above subject. He was not only a military man by profession, but he received promotion in that profession as a reward for his discovery.

But there is another function, belonging more to professors, which the teacher is sometimes almost forced to attempt. This is the business of naming. Required to convey the facts and principles of science to young minds, the teacher soon feels most keenly any defects in the terms of those sciences. If those terms are inadequate, or unhappy, no one will feel it sooner than he who is obliged to make them the vehicle of ideas to uninstructed minds. And this will lead to attempts, and suggestions in the way of improvement. Thus, one proposes to his classes a beautiful change in the naming of the English tenses. The common method is to apply the name *perfect* to any action completed at, or before, some given moment. Thus a thing done just at or before the present moment is called *present-perfect;* before a past moment, *past-perfect;* and before a future moment, *future-perfect.* He suggests the better word *prior*, to convey the same idea; and would call the above tenses, *prior-present*, *prior-past*, and *prior-future.* Thus, either from analogy or actual example, it appears that the teacher, although only an amateur in science, may yet incidentally both discover and name quite as happily as the most devoted professor. C. R. C.

In the sparsely settled districts of Norway and Sweden, where there are not children enough in any neighborhood to give constant employment to a teacher, a system of traveling schools is provided. A public school-master collects a few children in some convenient room, instructs them for two or three months, then passes on to repeat the course in the next hamlet. In this way a modicum of instruction is secured to every child in the country. A similar provision for the children of thinly settled districts is made by the new school law of Georgia, the first experiment of the kind in this country.

EDUCATION—A CURE FOR THE EVILS OF FRANCE.

WE must remove the bad cause of all our ills—ignorance—whence issue alternately despotism and demagogism. Yes, it can be clearly proved that it is the inferiority of our national education which has brought us to reverses. How can we expect that men whose only knowledge of society is obtained from that aspect which irritates them—that of an insufficiently paid labor—should not become embittered, and at length allow their passions to burst forth in the public places? Therefore I declare that there will be no peace, repose, and order, until all classes of society shall be led to participate in the benefits of civilization and knowledge, and shall consider their Government as a legitimate emanation of their sovereignty, and not as a jealous and greedy master. Until then, by continuing in the fatal course in which we are engaged, you will only produce ignorant men, sometimes the supporters of the *coups d'état*, and sometimes the auxiliaries of violence in the streets; and we shall remain exposed to the impious rage of unconscious and misguided multitudes, destroying everything around them, and without respect even for the memorials of their traditions, because they cannot arrive at the satisfaction of impossible desires, and therefore avenge themselves by heaping up ruins. Then we shall do well to remember the remark of Channing: "Societies are responsible for the catastrophes which break out in their midst, just as those badly-governed towns which allow carrion to fester in the sun are answerable for the pestilences which ensue." As for political error in the peasant, it has the same origin as in the workman—ignorance. Why, now that a contest has arisen among the monarchical parties, do the Bourbons turn to the peasant and disguise their pretenses, while the peasant does not conceal his wish for the return of the Emperor? That arises, I believe, gentlemen, from a state of mind peculiar to the peasant. He has been told repeatedly that his property was created and maintained by Napoleon. He is not a man who can mark nice shades of distinction; he confounds Bonaparte and Revolution; he has not a mind for discrimination and criticism, but he has a perception of gross results; and

he knows that his grandfather bought the land, and was able to keep it under Napoleon I., while, under the invasion, he was menanced with the loss of that farm, in the defense of which, under the Republic, he had heroically shed his blood, saving at the same time his property and his country. The peasant knows all that. He also sees that whenever the restoration or the old *regime* re-appears, the division, if not the possession of land is menaced.—*From a Speech of Gambetta at Bordeaux, June* 28.

LABOR CONDUCIVE TO LONG LIFE.

IN view of the short duration of life entailed by some occupations, it must be regarded as a consoling, yea, a sublime fact, that labor in general does not tend to shorten life; but, on the contrary, by strengthening health, lengthens life; while, on the other hand, idleness and luxury are productive of the same results as the most unhealthy occupations. Dr. Guy, an Englishman, in calculating the average duration of life of the wealthy classes, arrived at the very surprising result, with regard to adults, that the higher their position in the social scale, the more unlimited their means, the less also the probability of a long life. We have been so long accustomed to consider the possession of riches as the best guarantee for physical welfare, that many will be surprised to hear from Guy that "the probability of the duration of life lessens, with regard to the adults in each class of the population, in the same degree as the beneficial impulse for occupation is lacking. If a person, who for a long time has lived an active life, retires from business, it may be taken for granted, with a probability of ten to one, that he has seized the most effective means to shorten his life." We may smile at the soap-maker, who, after having formally retired from business, went, nevertheless, on each day of soap-boiling to his workshop; but it must also be acknowledged that his instinct did not mislead him. Of all conditions of life, idleness is hardest for nature to combat; and this is especially true of persons who have accustomed themselves to a busy life.

THE SONS OF PESTALÓZZI.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF CARL GUTZKOW.

CHAPTER XV.—*Continued.*

THE bell struck seven. Bröge, the janitor, was the first to come home. The incumbents of this office, having more inducements to accept bribes than any other officers, ought to have been very frequently displaced. But Mrs. Nesselborn insisted upon retaining the man Bröge, unscrupulous as he was, since he and his wife, by many valuable services, had ingratiated themselves in her favor. There was a strong suspicion that he had aided the students in the last disorders. He had "forgotten" to take the key out of the street door, and "forgotten" to lock the shutters. But there the matter rested.

It was half past seven when the servants began to return home from their holiday excursion. There was a peculiar bustle, and a strange uneasiness among them. Then the boys came, but without Waldner. They slunk to their rooms with an ominous silence. When Nesselborn stepped into the hall, he perceived that their clothing was in disorder, torn, and soiled, and their faces more or less injured. "Good gracious, what is the matter?" exclaimed Mr. Nesselborn, when Dr. Wehrmann, one of the boarding teachers, entered the house. "Where is Waldner?"

But before Wehrmann could begin his report, Nesselborn's daughters, their faces bearing the expression of bad consciences, made their appearance. Nesselborn immediately inquired of them concerning Waldner. But he received no answer, both hurrying toward their rooms.

At this moment Mrs. Nesselborn, who knew better than her husband how to compel the persons she addressed to answer her questions, entered the hall. "There has been an affray," she said; "Waldner is wounded."

"Wounded! and by whom? Where is he?" ejaculated Mr. Nesselborn, struck with terror.

"It has not been very serious, I presume," said Mrs. Nesselborn. "But—"

It was impossible to extort any information from her, and Nesselborn, who had heard some of the smaller boys eavesdropping on the second floor, hurried up stairs to examine them. By close inquiries he elicited that, in the beginning, they had harmlessly played in one of the village gardens, next to Wolmerode, till the larger boys had got into some difficulty with Mr. Waldner, who would not allow them to smoke cigars. They had, then, withdrawn into a neighboring grove, but had soon returned with the two Princes, and with—

The report of the boys was here interrupted by Mrs. Nesselborn, who, like a fury, rushed up stairs and drove the poor boys with boxed ears and abuse to their rooms. That was *her* way of keeping discipline in that Institute. Mr. Nesselborn stood dumbfounded. From his helpmate's ire, the reserve of the boys, and the ill-concealed smiles of Dr. Wehrmann, who had repaired to the scene of action, he gathered, to his dismay, that his daughters were probably in the affair. He inferred that they must have been in the company of the Princes, who, with the other boys, had attacked and wounded Theodore Waldner.

Mrs. Nesselborn took her husband into his study. "You will have to dress immediately, and call on President de Fernau!"

"On whom?" ejaculated Nesselborn, appalled, and not being able to comprehend the connection of the President with the present difficulty.

"The girls," she continued, "had my permission to solicit Staudner's mediation. Not finding him home, they went after him to Wolmerode, where he was one of the guests at the dinner-party. All went on well; for the old Prince and Bögendorf were among the guests, and there can be no doubt that Staudner has carried his point. The Prince may be glad if his sons do not fall into the hands of justice. The courts—"

"The courts! Then, Waldner's injuries must be serious?"

"Perhaps—one of his ribs may be broken."

"Good gracious! And all that in connection with my Institute—with our daughters! What made the unlucky girls stay in the village?"

"Why, you see the Princes do not mean to give them up. The poor girls were in the carriage on their way home, when the two Princes stopped them, and implored them to remain. Then they went together into the grove, where they found Count Linsingen, Baron Detlev, Wilson, Conybeare, Otschakoff, and Krisinsky. The quarrel about the cigars had just taken place. They went back, and, somehow, a new affray began."

"Why did not Levana and Adelgunde keep back these miscreants?"

"The poor, helpless girls! Waldner himself is responsible for the renewal of the quarrel. He ordered the Princes away from the rest."

"He was right, the Princes are no more members of the Institute."

"It was a folly to provoke the stronger party. Since the Princes refused to absent themselves, he, without ceremony, seized them by their collars to turn them out of the garden."

"The boy was right. He is of the true mettle."

"Why! at a public place? Well, he has paid dearly for it. Prince Constantine administered to him a thrashing he will not easily forget; he hit him repeatedly with his riding whip over the face, threw him to the ground, and kicked him till Prince Alexander interfered."

Nesselborn replied nothing, but was already dressing.

"That will make the old Prince pliable, I suppose," remarked Mrs. Nesselborn.

"On the contrary," groaned Lienhard, "it will inflame his rage, and make him entirely unmanageable."

At this moment both daughters entered the study of their father. The sudden appearance of his lost children excited his anger, which gave him strength enough to rush upon them, and seize them by their arms, shaking them violently:

"Who are you?" he ejaculated. "What do you want here? I do not know you—"

"Maniac!" interposed the mother, burning with rage,

and releasing her darlings from his grasp. They retired weeping to their rooms.

"What has Fernau to do with this affair?" he asked staggering. It was then only that he was informed of the closing scenes of the tragedy. President Fernau, with his wife and youngest daughter, had accidentally been in a pavillion near the garden. By the noise he had been attracted to the scene of the conflict, and had promptly interfered in behalf of Waldner, and, assisted by his wife and daughter, had taken him under his care.

"And did they know," asked Lienhard, "who was the object of their kindness?"

"They were told that it was a teacher in our Institute."

When Mr. Nesselborn was ushered into President De Fernau's apartments, he found there the President in familiar conversation with his wife and daughters. On a table was some linen, which Mrs. De Fernau was placing in a basket. The President shook hands with Mr. Nesselborn, and immediately addressed him with reference to the affair of the afternoon.

"Indeed, my dear Mr. Nesselborn," he said, "you cannot place that wild band of yours under too severe a control. I am sorry that I did not come sooner to the spot; but I was at least in time to save Waldner from a still worse treatment."

"Then you know the unfortunate youth? Where is he? Where can I find him?"

"You see the ladies about to send him some linen——"

"No, of *taking* him some linen"—amended the forward Mechthild, the youngest of the daughters; "for I shall go myself."

"You will do no such thing," corrected the father.

"I have my carriage below," said Nesselborn; "please leave it all to me. It is *my* duty to take care of him. Where is he?"

"I would decidedly object to transporting him now," said the President. "You will at least submit to the directions of Dr. Hochstetter, our family physician. He was delirious with fever when we left him. How is it possible, Mr. Nesselborn, that *your* daughters could witness such a disgraceful scene without trying to prevent it?"

Nesselborn was silent.

"Part of the students of the higher classes," continued the President, "had revolted against Waldner's orders, which were eminently proper, and ought to have been obeyed. He had forbidden the smoking of cigars, and had ordered the sons of Prince Porphyrogenitus to keep at a distance from the students, entrusted to his and another gentleman's care. The Roumanians had the impudence to refer to your daughters. Then Waldner very properly declared that he had no instruction to do the bidding of these young ladies. This enraged the older of the Roumanian Princes, who struck Waldner with his whip; assisted by some of your students, among whom there were the sons of several Counts and Barons. Other boys took Waldner's side, and a general fight followed, while the smaller boys were crying for help. This brought us up to the place. The cowards betook themselves to flight, together with your daughters. The whole occurrence is disreputable to your institution."

"I am overwhelmed with grief, Mr. President," were the only words Mr. Nesselborn could utter.

"Waldner was unconscious. We engaged two fishermen, and, with their help, carried him to a boat, which we engaged for his passage to the city. His face is badly cut, his right arm is sprained, and he feels acute pains in his left side. I hope there is no fracture of his ribs. The passage up the stream was slow, and Waldner lay in fever. I was afraid of the cool air on the water, and when we passed the house of Wülfing, the lumber dealer—but you must know the man from Steinthal, Mr. Nesselborn?"

Nesselborn assented. There was a pause.

"Is it not like a miracle," continued the President, "that he who saved and resuscitated the poor youth should live at the very spot which I anxiously scanned for a place to afford him hospitality in his present distress? Who could have been better qualified to give him shelter? The oarsmen landed their boat, and not finding Wülfing at home, I left Waldner in a delirium, under the care of Mrs. Wülfing, who seemed deeply moved by this dispensation of Providence. I immediately gave orders to direct my own physician to

Wülfing's residence, and am now about to send him linen, and whatever else may be necessary for his relief."

Nesselborn, in the meanwhile, had collected himself a little. "Mr. President," he said, "I cannot prevent you from continuing your work of charity; but I hope you will direct your servant to accompany me in my carriage. I shall let it depend on the physician's decision, whether Waldner must stay for the present in Wülfing's house, or whether he can bear the transfer to my residence. Waldner will get ample and full satisfaction: that I can promise you. My vocation is a hard one, and full of trouble and anxiety. A single mistake may upset the faithful labor of many years. I had allowed leave of absence to two of my boarding teachers, not considering that my students were to go out on an excursion, and that the two remaining teachers, one of whom had no experience, were no sufficient safeguard against disorder. Let us hope that no serious consequences, save the sad remembrance, may come from this ill-fated day."

With these words Lienhard took his leave, accompanied by de Fernau's servant with the basket of linen.

CHAPTER XVI.

WULFING'S lumber-yard was the exact reverse of his former forest home, near Steinthal. The river was disfigured by ungainly looking skiffs, and the banks were encrusted with refuse and scraps of lumber. An air of desolation hovered over the barren grounds which seemed to groan under the piles of lumber and wood. There was no trace of vegetation, except here and there a stunted willow or a neglected Italian poplar, the branches of which had been permitted to grow unpruned down to the roots. Here and there the chimneys of factories showed their bleak heads, and the unwholesome vapors of a neighboring establishment where chemicals were manufactured, vitiated the atmosphere and, according to popular belief, poisoned the water of the wells.

The dwelling-house belonging to the lumber-yard had two

stories, and presented a pleasant aspect. There was neither a great display of bright curtains at the windows within, nor of ornamental flowers without. The little garden around the house showed only plants useful for the kitchen. Onion stems were swaying their heavy heads to and fro; broad-leaved lettuce nestled close to the ground, and withered peas left bare the brush which had supported them. The interior of the house was a model of cleanliness and comfort. Wülfing and his wife lived alone in the house; all the factory hands lodged in the outhouses or lived at a distance. The two sons, were living abroad, having found profitable employment on railroads in Belgium and France. Wülfing's life was as secluded as it had been when he dwelt in the Steinthal forest. He was in easy circumstances, and yet he shunned all amusements. His wife too, kept aloof from concerts and theatres, not because she considered these amusements incompatible with the lessons she received at church, which she and her husband regularly attended; but because the theatre roused emotions which they dreaded. It is remarkable that one who bears a load of guilt on his soul, even when he has repented, is painfully affected by all that is performed on the stage. The professional criminal habitually shuns the stage in all its forms.

Great was Wülfing's astonishment when he came home, and learned that there was a guest within. The physician had examined the wounded youth, and had pronounced the external injuries unimportant; but he hadwithheld his opinion on the pains in the side, and had merely insisted upon keeping the patient in an unchanged position, not permitting his removal, for the present. Waldner had been told the names of those that gave him hospitality.

When Wülfing entered he found the youth lying in bed with folded hands, his forehead wrapped in cloths. He had not seen Henennhöft's victim since that night of terror when he had discovered him and saved him from an awful death.

Waldner stretched one hand towards the comrade of his former jailor, while the other was supporting his aching side. "This is a just punishment of heaven," said he, "for my neglect to call on you, Mr. Wülfing. It is true, I arrived here no longer than a week ago, but to call on you

ought to have been my first duty; I well know how deep I am in your debt." Wülfing's eyes were moist with tears when he was thus addressed by Waldner. Asking him to avoid all excitement, he gently placed Waldner's hand back on the bed.

Soon a carriage was heard stopping at the door, and Nesselborn rushed in. For a long time the latter had not exercised the right to call himself Waldner's spiritual father, a title of which he had once been so proud. Even when Waldner came to him from the deathbed of his venerable father, he had received him rather with sober solemnity than with affection. Waldner still bore the marks of that long confinement by which the days of his childhood and youth had been deprived of almost every condition of healthful development. His skin had that transparent whiteness which it had on the day of his release. Not even the burning sun of July, nor the hard labor to which he had been subjected in the field at Steinthal, had darkened his complexion. His bearing was almost girlish, his dark eyes had a feminine expression, his smile was bashful. His stature was of middle size, and his gait was different from that of most other men, resembling the walk of a sailor who, after a long voyage, treads the firm land for the first time.

Nesselborn repeated to him the different versions of the late accident, as he had heard them. A gentle shaking of his head was all the answer Waldner could give to correct the many inaccuracies and errors in the report. "Mr. Nesselborn," said Wülfing, "allow our friend to rest. It must be trying and exciting to hear misstatements from the lips of the very person for whose reputation he has suffered such cruel treatment."

"Indeed," interposed Mrs. Wülfing, "the whole city knows how wild and bold your pupils are. When they pass the streets in their uniforms, beating their drums, people rush to the windows, and think that the French have captured the city, and are parading the streets."

Waldner smiled—with bitterness indeed. Mrs. Wülfing's remark was a criticism on his "foster-father's" educational system. Nesselborn, who had remarked this smile, said, "I shall be glad if your judgment has become riper. It was a blessing that the horizon which was prematurely spread

before your eyes, was narrowed down by your transfer to Steinthal. A blind eye which has been restored to sight, will pain in making the first use of its newly acquired faculty. I could well understand that you, when under my care, should have longed for your former prison. But now that you have been habituated to human intercourse, you must open your heart to all its humanizing effects, the foremost of which is Charity! Do not judge too rashly! Not even Truth itself is equally expedient and proper at all times. To experience this you will yet have many opportunities in life!"

Waldner did not answer; but his large, dark eyes were resting on the speaker, who was unable to encounter them. Wülfing and his wife again besought Mr. Nesselborn to allow quiet and sleep to the patient, and Waldner soon fell into a restless and feverish sleep. Now and then he would utter incoherent words. Sometimes he laughed or expressed anxiety and dread, ordering away persons whom he imagined he saw. The names "Gertrude" and "Mechthild" could be clearly distinguished. Even "the man," the awful spectre of his former jailor, appeared to his fancy, emerging, as it were, from the abode of the wicked. Even the "little horses" were mentioned, which had served him as playthings in his long captivity—as playthings in a grave, where the dreams of his first childhood, that happiest period of human life, were entombed.

The physician came and declared these delirious dreams to be the natural course of the fever. After forbidding Waldner's removal from his present place, he withdrew with Mr. Nesselborn. Then a young teacher of Nesselborn's Institute, Bechthold by name, made a call. He had come of his own accord, and could not stay long. He cast a look of infinite tenderness on his sleeping friend, and went away promising to call again on the next day, and to spend every leisure hour at the patient's bedside.

"In all this we ought to recognize the hand of God!" said Wülfing, when he, at last, was left alone with his wife, in the adjoining room. "It will come as the Scripture says," remarked his wife: "The last shall be worse than the first."

"I almost feel," said Wülfing, "that the accident by which

this youth has been placed under our care, is foreboding a new disaster to us. Did they not accuse us of being accomplices in the imprisonment of Count Wildenschwert's son? May God forbid that anything should happen to him while he is here with us."

"Let men think as they like!"

"The Baron would hardly be pleased if he should lose his wife's property, and be compelled to make it over to—that youth!"

"That would be terrible! Rather——" "Rather?—"

There was an anxious pause. Wülfing needed time to complete the idea suppressed by his wife, namely, that "rather the Baron de Fernau would take the life of the foundling."

"The other day I met *him*," remarked Wülfing, and his wife understood that Otto de Fernau, Jadwiga's husband, was meant.

"Did he speak of *him*?" asked she. Again Wülfing knew that Theodore Waldner was meant.

"He is too proud for that—"

"Perhaps he does not *know* it—" "I almost think so—"

"*She* is too proud for it! I am sure she has not spoken a word with him on the subject."

This conjecture intimated a relation existing between Otto de Fernau and his wife, which was awful beyond conception. It was peculiar that both Wülfing and his wife, in spite of their lowly condition, should have realized a relation of such appalling grandeur. But both loved, pitied, and—admired Jadwiga.

Dr. F—— was the President of a Southern College, who professed to be correct in his language, and, therefore, expected his pupils to be likewise. Playing cards was strictly forbidden on the school premises, but as is often the case, this law was violated by the students without being detected. A nnmber of Freshmen collected in one of their number's room, were enjoying a game of euchre, when a knock was heard at the door. "Who's there?" one exclaimed. "Me!" was the laconic reply. "Who's *me?*" "Professor F——." "You lie! Prof. F—— would not say *me;* he would say, 'It is *I*, sir.'"

ABOUT WORDS.

IT has been calculated that our language, including the nomenclature of the arts and sciences, contains 100,000 words; yet, of this immense number, it is surprising how few are in common use. To the great majority, even of educated men, three-fourths of these words are almost as unfamiliar as Greek or Choctaw. Strike from the lexicon all the words nearly obsolete—all the words of special arts or professions—all the words confined in their usage to particular localities—all the words which even the educated speaker uses only in homœopathic doses—and it is astonishing into what a Lilliputian volume your Brobdingnagian Webster or Worcester will have shrunk. It has been calculated that a child uses only about one hundred words; and, unless he belongs to the educated classes, he will never employ more than three or four hundred. A distinguished American scholar estimates that few speakers or writers use as many as ten thousand words; ordinary persons, of fair intelligence, not over three or four thousand. Even the great orator who is able to bring into the field, in the war of words, half the vast array of light and heavy troops which the vocabulary affords, yet contents himself with a far less imposing display of verbal force. Even the all-knowing Milton, whose wealth of words seems amazing, and whom Dr. Johnson charges with using "a Babylonish dialect," uses only 8,000; and Shakespeare himself, "the myriad-minded," only 15,000. These facts show that the difficulty of mastering the vocabulary of a new tongue is greatly overrated; and they show, too, how absurd is the boast of every new dictionary-maker that his vocabulary contains so many thousand words more than those of his predecessors. —*The Lakeside Monthly.*

IT is the very wantonness of folly for a man to search out the frets and burdens of his calling, and give his mind every day to a consideration of them. Brooding over them only gives them strength.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Public Schools, Hon. A. C. Hardy, opens with a gratifying statement concerning the work done during the year. "New and excellent school-houses have been built; more attention has been given to the selection of teachers; higher salaries have been paid; school committees have been more active and earnest; the statistics more accurately collected and reported; more visits made to the school-room by parents, and more money raised and expended for schools. 'Successful' is the report of school committees in nearly every instance." All this is very encouraging, and gives some hope for a brilliant future for the educational system of New Hampshire. At present, however, the schools are by no means what they should be, nor even such as we would expect to find in a New England State. A careful reading of the report shows that in many respects decided progress has been made; but the point whence the onward march began was so far behind the position arrived at by other States, that, notwithstanding the ground gained during the year, the Granite State is still very much in the rear. This is evident from the fact that the average time all the schools were kept was 14 weeks, whereas in Ohio the average length of the session was over 30 weeks. The total number of pupils enrolled who attended school not less than two weeks, was 71,957; the average attendance, 48,150. It is believed that, if the record of those "who do not attend" had been correctly returned, it would show that not more than fifty per cent. of the children of the State attended school. This fact is so sad and startling that it could not be overlooked. Some measures had to be devised to remedy this evil and to prevent the waste of school money and the spread of ignorance. It is, probably, for this purpose that the Legislature has passed, since the presentation of the Superintendent's report, an "Act to compel children to attend school," thus taking advanced ground on the subject of compulsory education. It is not certain, however, that the public sentiment will allow the

law to be enforced. If the people were ready for it, they would demand better school laws generally, and their apparent disregard of the laws already in existence, does not augur well for the new statute. The passage of the Act, however, is indicative of an awakening on the part of the Legislature which we record with pleasure. The State Normal School, located at Plymouth, is in successful operation. Its graduates are expected to exert a powerful influence in the work of reformation now going on. The following statistics may be of interest: Number of towns, 233; number of districts, 2,216, schools, 2, 497; number of teachers, male, 542, female, 3,065; average wages of teachers, male, $35.26, female, $22.00; estimated value of school property, $1,493,627.68; school houses unfit for their purposes, 410; total amount raised from all sources, to be expended for schools, $418,544.88.

THE KIMBALL UNION ACADEMY of Meriden, N. H., appeals to its Alumni, and to the friends of education generally, for an additional endowment of at least $100,000, to place it upon an effective working basis. The past history of this institution indicates that this modest appeal merits a prompt and generous response.

CONNECTICUT.—The Twenty-fifth Annual Meeting of the State Teachers' Association, was held at Norwich, Oct. 19th and 20th. The meeting was well attended by a large number of intelligent and earnest teachers. The papers read were good, and, in the main, sound. Altogether the exercises were equal to any that we have ever listened to, and superior to some, in larger States than Connecticut.

DR. J. C. WELLING was inaugurated as President of Columbian College, D. C., on the evening of Nov. 6. The farewell address of Dr. G. W. Samson, the retiring President, was an interesting review of "The Spirit of Progress Developed in American Colleges during the last twenty years," in which he claims for an American, Dr. Wayland, formerly President of Brown University, the honor of first breaking away from the old scholastic system.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.—A good sign of the times is the growing number of Educational periodicals, as well as the growing number of newspapers and magazines which have "Educational Departments." The press generally is giving more and more attention to Educational topics. The papers of the South are doing remarkably well in discussing Educational questions and in manufacturing Educational sentiment, which is bound to accomplish great good.

THE MONTHLY VISITOR, of Norfolk, Va., discourses on "Our Public Schools," as follows:

The Public or Free-School system in the Southern States, especially in Virginia and North Carolina, has, within the past eighteen months, received such an impetus and such legislative assistance, as to justify the highest hopes of its warmest friends; but, without the co-operation of those who should be interested, little can be expected.

First, we need *good teachers*, since good teaching can emanate from no others. It is an axiom in Pedagogic circles, that as the *Teacher* so the school; hence we call upon our Superintendents to test well the qualifications of all applicants; to discard personal influence and caste considerations, and let *merit* be the passport. No matter if Mrs. A. *is* a widow with six helpless children; Mr. B. a pillar in the church; Mr. C. an intimate friend of the Superintendent and every trustee in the county; Miss D. the only support of her father's family—who, by-the-by, was one of the most popular men in the district; has the applicant *merit* above other competitors, is the decisive question? For the sake of the cause let not sympathy and personal feelings usurp the place of *duty*. Let our Superintendents appoint none who will not be a credit to this honorable and highly important profession. The Teacher should be the exemplar, the model for the immortal architecture; hence we urge the vital importance of *good teachers*. Make the school systems of the Southern States, their greatest ornament, their most enduring and ennobling monument—the first essential of which is *good teachers*."

THE RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER is one of the very best of our exchanges. It is conducted with honesty and

ability. In discussing the merits and demerits of Fischer's translation of Baskerville's Grammar, the editor remarks:—"If Mr. Worman suffers this book to rest in peace, we shall have to conclude its grammar perfect and its faults absolutely undiscernible." Some months ago, on the first appearance of Fischer's work, we solicited Mr. Worman, through his publisher, to review the book. Surely Mr. Worman should not be afraid to expose the shortcomings of Dr. Fischer!

In speaking of "A Brief History," the RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER says: "the fact that it is issued by —— does much toward securing for it a careful perusal by thoughtful teachers." When we consider that the publishers alluded to have more indifferent, poor, and positively bad books on their list, than any other two school book houses in America, we are led to reflect that the best of Editors are liable to err. The State Educational Journals frequently seem to have more interest in pleasing advertising patronage than in profiting their readers.

WHY should Latin be styled a "dead" language, when every Commencement day College Presidents from their high thrones intone the sonorous order, *proximus orator accedat*, or something to the same effect; and the diploma confers on all Bachelors *potestatem amplissimam privilegiis, immunitatibus et honoribus fruendi ubique gentium ad eundem gradum pertinentibus?* To be sure, the ear may sometimes be startled by a false quantity, and the peculiar, hesitating utterance of the learned man may remind us that Latin is not his mother tongue, even if the furtive downward glance do not suggest that he is prompting himself from a hidden scrap of paper; yet, is it aught else than Latin, the speech of Cicero and Lucretius?

Then there is the Triennial Catalogue, a document which costs the Latin professor so much travail in the getting up, and which so few B. A.'s dare to think they fully understand; a series of cabalistic abbreviations of terms which would hardly be intelligible if written out at full length; a book of puzzles, furnishing to grown-up people very much

the same sort of mental gymnastics that the riddle corner of the newspaper does to the young folk.

But seriously, while we are glad to see that good sense is prevailing over pedantry, and causing the ancient fashion of Latin triennials to pass away, we approve most heartily of training youth to compose, if not to speak, in whatever language they are set to learn. We believe in acquiring languages *for use*, and not merely as a means for getting at the linguistic logic digested in the grammars. This logic we think we do not undervalue, nor would we underrate the accuracy and fine discrimination induced by the study of etymological and syntactical minutiæ. We demand only that, from all this drill and digging of roots and slow elaboration of little things, *there shall result a* USABLE *knowledge* of whatever language is pursued. The thorough comprehension of the structure and development of any regular speech is a great acquisition, but even this cannot be won without a practical acquaintance with the language and some portion of its literature. We are sometimes disposed to affirm thatthe French man who has picked up such a smattering of English as serves his turn in his daily intercourse and business, has a larger treasure by far than the American whose knowledge of French is mostly confined to theory, and proves to be quite unproducible upon occasion of need.

Of Latin verse-writing we have nothing now to say, but we could wish that every one who meddles with Latin at all should be able to indite a bit of prose in that language that should not be quite unintelligible. If the classics are to hold their ground as against the sciences, then it is to be by the achieving of better and more practical results than have generally accrued from the verbal dissection and analysis in vogue of late years. Syntax may afford a higher discipline than Etymology; but the highest discipline, we are confident, is not incompatible with practical knowledge,—nay, we are disposed to maintain that it is conditioned upon it. So we plead for more Latin, not less; more, intensively, even if less, extensively,—more real knowledge and less dabbling.

The text which started us off on this homily—and to

which we have kept about as closely as the average sermonizer—was Smith and Hall's new *Latin-English Dictionary*,[1] a work destined to supplant all similar vocabularies. For fullness, patient research, and soundness of linguistic judgment, it must be acknowledged to take precedence of everything we had before. It is worthy to stand alongside of Drisler's edition of Yonge's English-Greek Lexicon, and that is no mean praise. The amount of editorial labor to which it witnesses is amazing. In the earlier portion reference is constantly made to reputable Roman writers as authority, but through the greater part of the dictionary these references specify the precise place where each example is to be found, thus enabling the student to verify everything for himself. It is to be regretted that this system of definite references was not adopted from the very first, though the amount of drudgery thereby entailed is fearful to think of. It will be found of service even as an English dictionary, so logical and discriminating are the classification and subdivision of meanings.

As an illustration of the thoroughness with which the work is done, we may cite the word *put*. To this and the phrases in which it occurs are given twenty closely packed columns; yet so clear is the arrangement that one should be able to lay his hand at once on the exact Latin expression he is in search of. The number of Latin authors consulted (and many of them ransacked) in the preparation of this work exceeds a hundred and eighty!

MESSRS. BREWER & TILESTON have just published revised editions of Worcester's Primary Dictionary and Worcester's Comprehensive Dictionary. Besides the important addition of tables and some additional words, they have inserted pictorial illustrations, which will materially add to the value of these works. The high appreciation in which Worcester's Dictionaries are held is encouraging to the cause of good English.

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1 A COPIOUS AND CRITICAL ENGLISH-LATIN DICTIONARY. By William Smith, LL.D., and Theophilus D. Hall, M.A. To which is added a Dictionary of Proper Names. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1871. Royal octavo, 1,032 pp.

MESSRS. CLAXTON, REMSEN & HAFFELFINGER have published "Outlines of History," with original tables, chronological, genealogical and literary, by Robert H. Labberton. Also, by the same author, "An Historical Atlas," containing a chronological series of one hundred maps, at successive periods, from the dawn of history to the present day. Also, "Historical Questions," logically arranged and divided—A Companion book to the "Outlines of History." The best teachers will approve of Mr. Labberton's course in teaching history. It is calculated to create a taste for history and literature. It is suggestive in its plan, and, if properly used, will lead the pupil to inquire and investigate for himself. It will broaden his views, and fortify him against "the sophistries of smart magazinists, 'brilliant' lecturers, and crafty politicians."

Superficial, lazy and incompetent teachers will not be likely to give Mr. Labberton's works much attention. They will prefer something on the "one term" plan.

MR. JOSIAH HOLBROOK has published "School Management," by Alfred Holbrook, Principal of the Normal School at Lebanon, Ohio. The book is a compilation of twenty-one lectures which have been delivered, from time to time, by Mr. Holbrook, and doubtless will prove of good service to young teachers.

MESSRS. CHARLES SCRIBNER & CO., have published "The Elements of Intellectual Science," a Manual for Schools and Colleges, by Noah Porter. This is an abridgement of Dr. Porter's larger work, entitled *The Human Intellect*, first published in 1868. The publishers have added another volume to their Illustrated Library of Wonders—"Mountain Adventures," in various parts of the world, with an introduction by J. T. Headley. Forty-one illustrations.

MESSRS. JOHN WILEY & SON have issued "A Treatise on the Resistance of Materials, and an Appendix on the preservation of Timber," by De Volson Wood, of Michigan University. The work has been prepared with great care, and has a practical value. Also, "Tables of Weights, Measures, Coins, etc., of the United States and England, with

their equivalents in the French Decimal System," arranged by T. Eggleston.

THE UNIVERSITY PUBLISHING COMPANY have published "A Practical Business Arithmetic," designed as a text book for Commercial Colleges, Academies, and High Schools, and for the use of business men, accountants, clerks and private students, by Lorenzo Fairbanks. This book seems carefully and intelligently compiled; it is published in good style, and will prove valuable for the purposes intended.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS have published "The Ancient History of the East," from the earliest times to the conquest by Alexander the Great. It includes Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, Media, Persia, Asia Minor, and Phoenicia, by Philip Smith. 650 pages, with many illustrations.—"The Rise and Fall of the Paris Commune in 1871," with a full account of the Bombardment, Capture and Burning of the City, by W. Pembroke Fetridge. 516 pages, with maps and portraits.—"History of Louis Phillippe, King of the French," by John S. C. Abbott. 406 pages, with illustrations.

MISCELLANEA.

IF we are ever to wipe out the reputation of being a nation of rowdies, and command the respect of foreigners in the amenities of social intercourse, a national cultivation of music must lead the way.—*Jerome Hopkins.*

PROF. EDWARD WIEBE, late of Springfield, Mass., is at present in Hamburg, for the purpose of establishing a Model Kindergarten in connection with the Froebel Verein. He will again return to Leipzig, and continue his correspondence.

DR. W. D. WILSON, Professor of Metaphysics in Cornell University, has in press *Lectures on the Psychology of Thought and Action, Comparative and Human.*

MR. DARWIN is engaged on a work on the facial expression of animals.

AN English Countess is credited with a new work on the diseases of cats.

SCHOOL CATALOGUES RECEIVED.

EASTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Castine, Maine, G. T. Fletcher, A.M., Principal. Number of instructors, eight. Students, 324.

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Farmington, Maine, Charles C. Rounds, Principal. Assistants, seven. Number of pupils, 206.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, New Britain, Conn., Isaac N. Carlton, A,M., Principal. Instructors, eight. Total attendance, 132.

NEW YORK STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.—*Albany*—Joseph Alden, D.D., LL.D., President; has a Faculty of fifteen.
Oswego—Edward A. Sheldon, A.M., Principal. Faculty, seventeen.
Brockport—Charles D. McLean, A.M., LL.B., Principal. Faculty, nineteen.
Fredonia—Rev. John W. Armstrong, D.D., Principal. Faculty, fifteen.
Cortland—James H. Hoose, A.M., Principal. Faculty, fourteen.
Potsdam—Malcolm McVicar, Ph. D., LL.D., Principal. Faculty, seventeen.

NEW JERSEY STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Trenton, Lewis M. Johnson, Principal. The school is divided into three departments. The Normal and Model Schools, at Trenton, and the Farnum Preparatory School, at Beverly, under the special charge of J. Fletcher Street. Faculty of Normal School, eight; Model School, twenty-one; Preparatory School, seven. Total attendance, 1,136.

PA. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, (5th District,) Mansfield, Charles H. Verrill, Principal. Faculty, twelve. Number of pupils in the Normal School, 222; in the Model School, 145.

PA. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, (12th District,) Edinboro, J. A. Cooper, Principal. Instructors, nine.

NATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL, Lebanon, Ohio, Alfred Holbrook, President. It consists of four departments: Collegiate, Teachers', Business, and Preparatory. Number of instructors in these departments, fifteen. Pupils, 1,265.

MCNEELY NORMAL SCHOOL, Hopedale, Ohio, Edwin Regal, Principal; has five teachers and an attendance of 176 pupils.

WISCONSIN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Platteville, Edwin A. Charlton, A.M, President; reports a Faculty of nine. Number of Normal Students, 184; Preparatory, 162; Model School, 63. Whole number in attendance, 391.

COOK CO. NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL, Englewood, Ill., D. S. Wentworth, Principal, Instructors, eight. Students, 83. Average attendance, 71. This institution was established by the County of Cook, in 1867, for the training of teachers for the Public Schools.

MINN. STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.—*First*, at Winona, Wm. F. Phelps, Principal. Instructors, nine. Students, 216. Males, 57. Females, 159.
Second, at Mankato, George M. Gage, Principal. Instructors, ten. Pupils, 154. Males, 43. Females, 111.

Third, at St. Cloud, Ira Moore, Principal. Instructors, *five*. Pupils in the Normal department, 82. Model department, 116. This school is expected to occupy its new building this Autumn.

CAL. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, San Jose, Rev. Wm. T. Lucky. A.M. Principal. Instructors in the Normal department, four. Training department, two. Total attendance, 164. Whole number of Graduates, 253.

MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Baltimore, M. A. Newell, Principal. Number of Instructors, ten. Pupils, 163. Ladies, 139. Gentlemen, 24. Graduates, 10—all ladies.

MISSISSIPPI STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Holly Springs, S. W. Garman, Principal: Miss M. E. Hunt, Assistant. Pupils, 50. Ladies, 18. Gentlemen, 32.

☞ Principals and School Officers are requested to send to the Editor their Catalogues as soon as issued.

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